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ABSTRACT

This book is intended for use as a supplement to a five-unit instructional series, "The Shaping of Modern Hawaiian History." It presents information on land use, population and ethnic diversity, government, politics, the economy, and Hawaii's place in the Pacific. Provided are many graphs, tables, readings, documents, and maps, which include outline maps of the islands, as well as maps showing land use districts, land ownership, major elevations, coastal zone management areas, and the Pacific basin. Four history outlines (on land use, government, the economy, and social history) are included for use as an introduction to or review of events and trends in Hawaiian history. Ideas for classroom activities are presented, along with quizzes and worksheets. Also provided is the Teacher Answer Book, which supplies the answers to the quizzes and worksheets contained in the main document. (KH)

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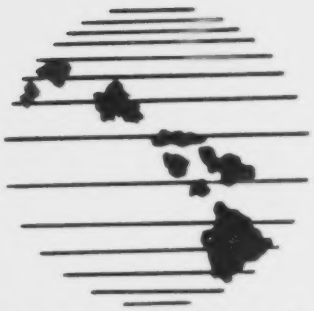
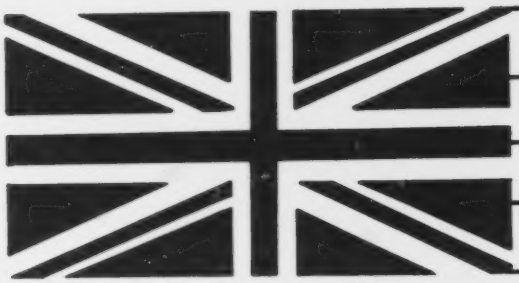
THE SHAPING OF MODERN HAWAIIAN HISTORY





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DATABOOK AND ATLAS

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The Shaping of
Modern Hawaiian History

DATABOOK AND ATLAS

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We also thank Edith Kleinjans for editing major portions of this book, and Ralph Williams for helping to proof sections of it.

Lastly, we thank the Projects Coordination Office for formatting and typing the book, securing copyright permissions, and doing artwork.

Introduction

Welcome to the *Databook and Atlas!* This book was compiled with the idea that it would be used as a supplement to the five-unit series, *The Shaping of Modern Hawaiian History*. It is also useful for anyone interested in the modern history of Hawai'i. It is filled with information on land use, population and ethnic diversity, government and politics, the economy, and Hawai'i's place in the Pacific.

There are numerous maps--basic outline maps of the islands, as well as maps showing land use districts, land ownership, major elevations, coastal zone management areas, and the Pacific basin. In addition to maps, there are graphs, tables, readings, and documents. For example, we include items such as "Energy Resources in Hawai'i," "Twenty-Year Change in Employment," "Manganese Nodule Potential," "Naturalization: How to Become an American Citizen," "Crown Lands, after the Great Māhele," "The Admission Act," and "The Office of Hawaiian Affairs."

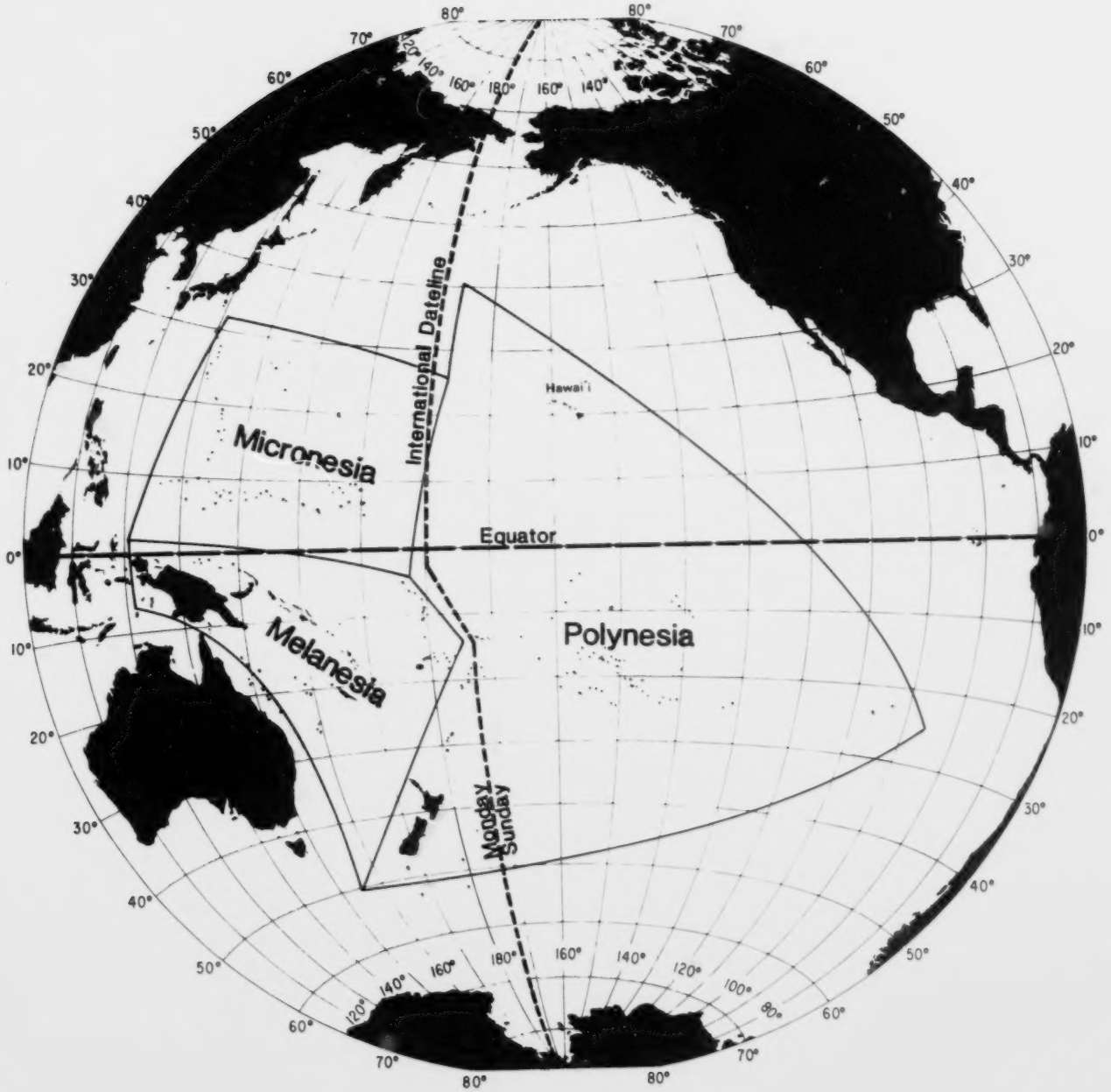
There are four history outlines on land use, government, the economy, and the social history of Hawai'i. They can be used as an introduction to and/or a review of events and trends in Hawai'i's history. They provide background to an understanding of contemporary events and issues in our state and show changes that have taken place over time. They can be used to spark discussion on patterns and relationships in events, possible causes of certain changes, why a certain event took place at a particular time, and what changes might occur in the future. Numerous activities are suggested for use with the outlines.

Please note that diacritical marks appear on Hawaiian words except when the text was reproduced directly from the source.

We invite your comments and suggestions on the *Databook and Atlas*.

Introduction to Hawai'i

The Pacific Basin



Hawai'i and the Pacific Basin

It takes little more than a look at a map to reveal why Hawai'i's economic health is heavily influenced by its neighbors in the Pacific Basin. The Islands lie near the center of that vast territory and, if the map were to show the ocean and air lanes connecting its far reaches, it would be clear that most pass directly through Hawai'i.

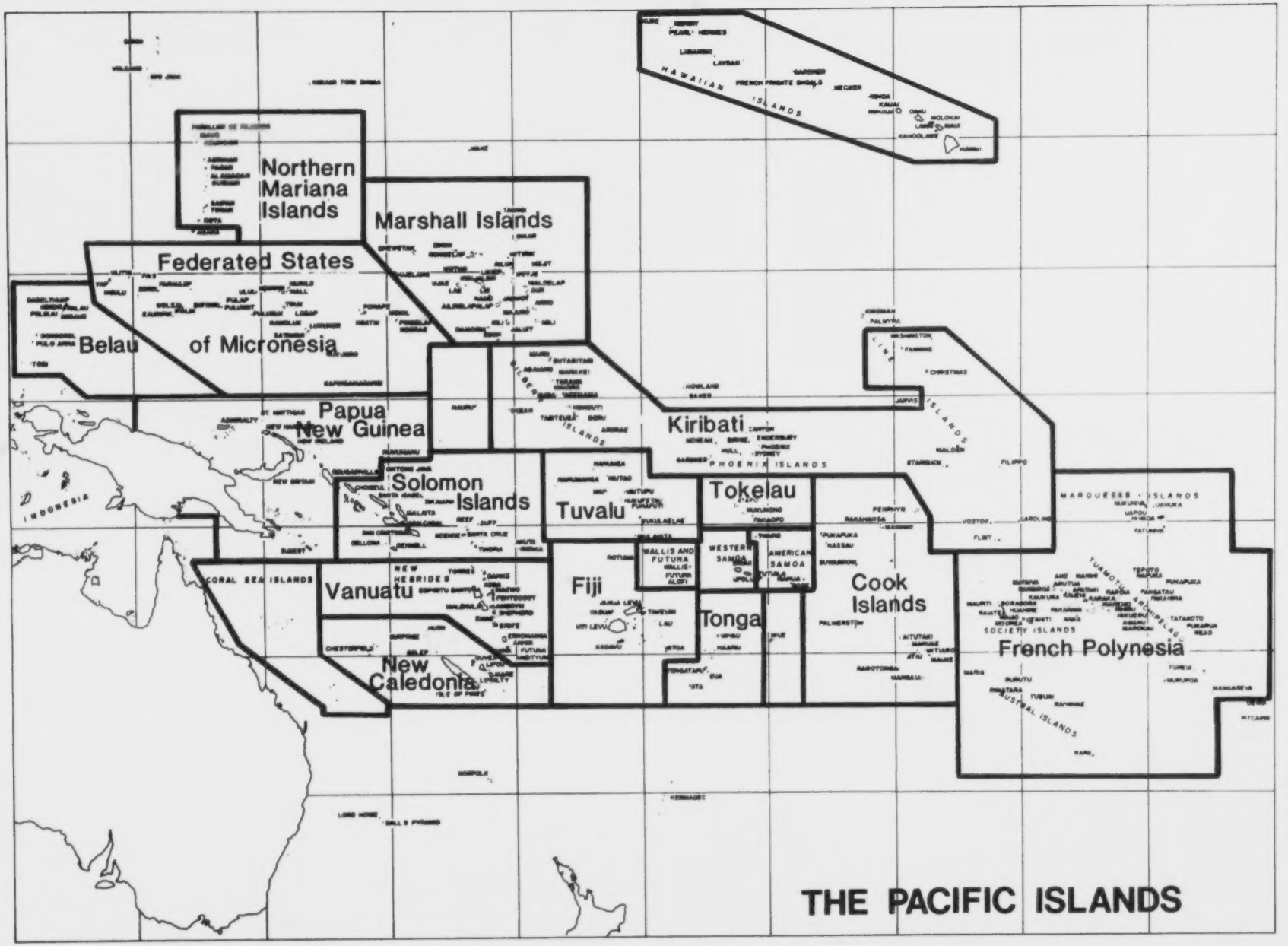
What a map doesn't show is the enormous economic growth that has occurred in the Pacific Basin in recent years. The growth has come despite skyrocketing energy costs and worldwide recessions. The result has put Hawai'i center stage in what may well be the greatest economic drama of the century.

During the 1970s, trade among the various markets of the Pacific--excluding bilateral commerce between the United States and Canada, but including Latin America--experienced a 700 percent increase. The two largest trading countries of the free world, the U.S. and Japan, are part of the Pacific rim, but so too are some of the world's fastest developing economies, including Taiwan, South Korea, Singapore, and Indonesia. America's trade with Japan and these other Far Eastern countries surpassed its trade with Europe several years ago and continues to grow yearly.

Unsurprisingly, as commerce between the countries of the Pacific Basin has increased rapidly, so has travel for both business and pleasure. In the past decade, the flow of travelers across the Pacific has risen by 300 percent.

Hawai'i is not only an established gateway for East-West transportation, but its cultural mix makes it a logical staging area for commerce in both directions. Modern technology also makes it a communications link. Companies doing business in the Islands can talk to Tokyo and New York in the same day--during normal working hours. They can also find in the local workforce a ready supply of skilled and energetic employees, many of whom are well versed in the languages and cultures of the Pacific rim countries.

The Pacific Basin has all the resources, both human and natural, required to sustain its present rate of growth indefinitely. It has vast petroleum and other raw material reserves just waiting to be developed. Its people number more than 1.5 billion, over a third of the world's total and six times the population of Europe. As a result, the Pacific has both the productive resources and the marketplace to support the development of all its communities, including that which lies at its center, Hawai'i.



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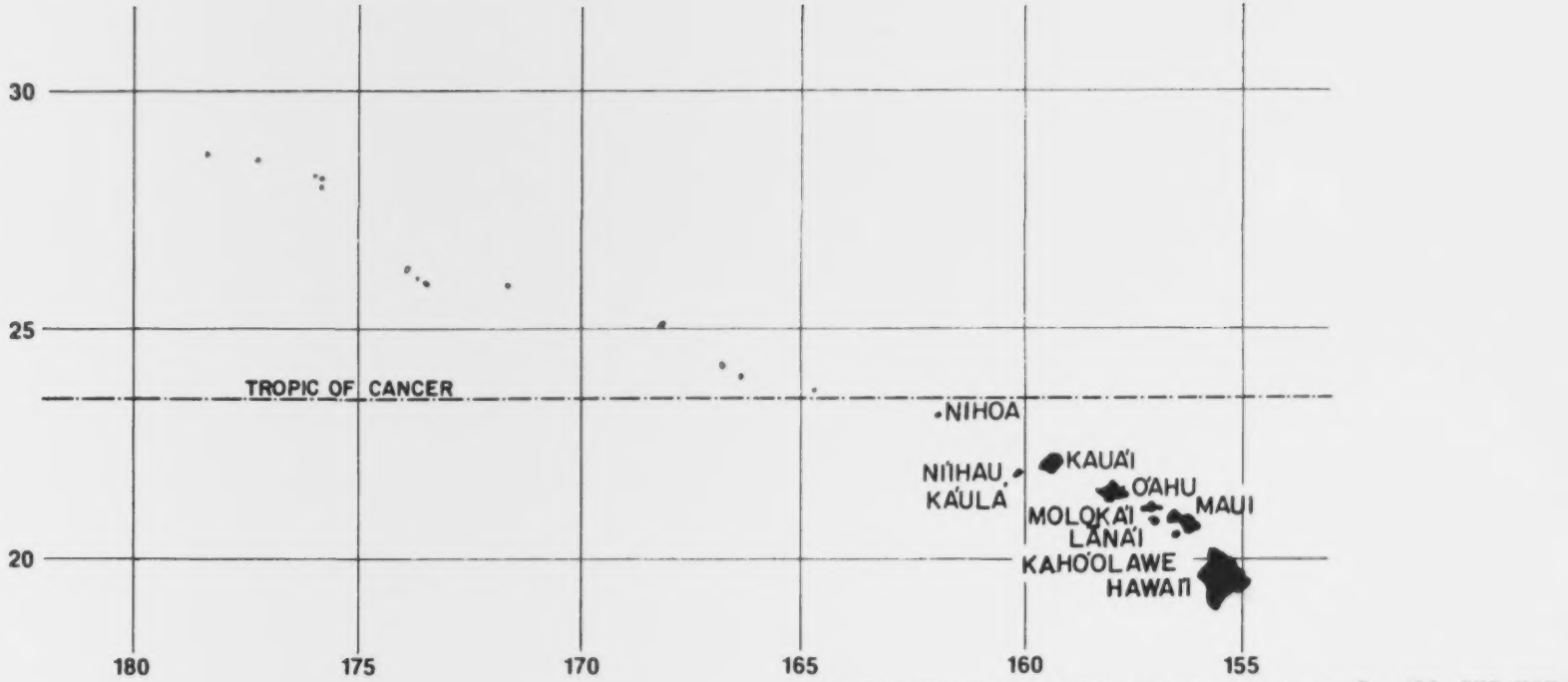
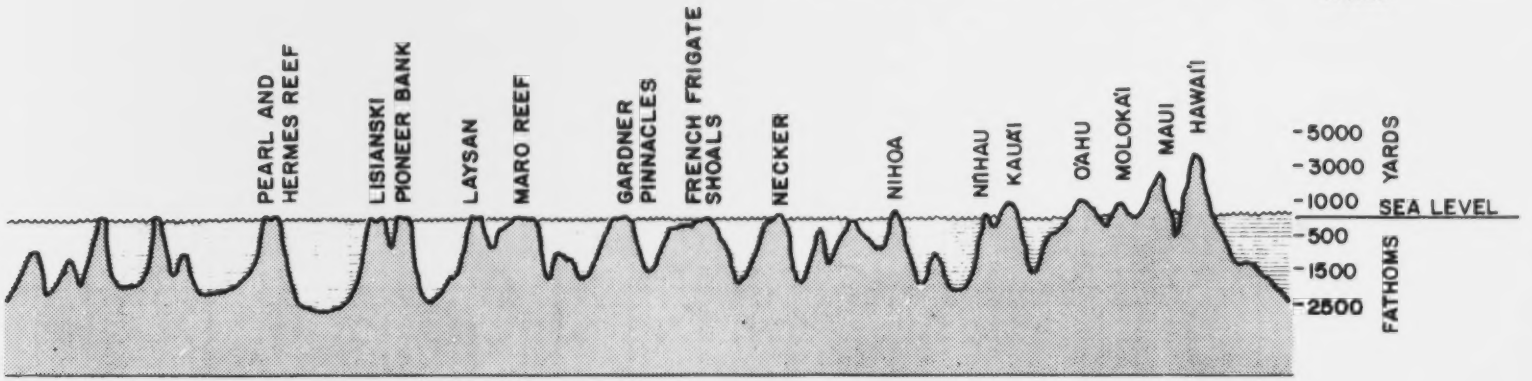
Profile of the Pacific Islands

	Status	Area (Sq. KM)	Population	Currency	Approximate Exchange (U.S. $)	Principal Industries & Resources	Capital or Administration Center	Principal Exports	Total Exports (Millions)	Total Imports (Millions)
American Samoa	Unincorporated U.S. Territory	197	31,500	U.S. Dollar	$1.00	Fishery	Pago-Pago	Fish (fresh & processed)	$125.2	$90.3
Cook Islands	Self Governing in Free Association with New Zealand	240	18,500	N.Z. Dollar	$0.85	Fishery, Citrus, Copra	Avarua	Copra, Citrus Juice	NZ$3.8	NZ$22.5
Fiji	Independent State	18,272	634,000	Fijian Dollar	$1.20	Cement, Tourism, Shipyard	Suva	Fish (canned), Cocoa, Copra, Wood Products	F$215.0	F$392.9
French Polynesia	Overseas Territory of France	4,000	141,000	Colonial Franc Pacifique	$0.18	Copra, Fishery, Pearl Culture	Papeete	Copra, Coconut Oil	FCP2,214	FCP36,704
Guam	Unincorporated U.S. Territory	549	105,800	U.S. Dollar	$1.00	Tourism, Watch Assembly, Petroleum Refining, Fish	Agana	Fish (canned), Scrap	$61.0	$544.2
Kiribati (Gilbert Islands)	Independent Republic	719	60,000	Australian Dollar	$1.15	Copra, Fishery	Tarawa	Copra, Phosphates	A$21.2	A$15.5
Nauru	Independent Republic	22	8,000	Australian Dollar	$1.15	Copra, Phosphates	Yaren	Phosphates	A$77.5	A$10.5
New Caledonia	Overseas Territory of France	19,103	138,000	Colonial Franc Pacifique	$0.18	Iron, Nickel, Chrome, Cobalt	Noumea	Non-Ferrous Metals, Metalliferous Ores, Scrap, Coffee, Copra	FCP27,904	FCP27,791
Niue	Self Governing in Free Association with New Zealand	258	3,600	N.Z. Dollar	$0.85	Copra, Timber, Honey	Alofi	Copra, Honey	NZ$0.4	NZ$2.1
Norfolk Islands	Territory of Australia	35	1,700	Australian Dollar	$1.15	Norfolk Pines, Avocados	Kingston	Norfolk Pine, Shells	A$1.2	A$8.9
Papua New Guinea	Independent State	462,000	3,168,700	Kina	$1.49	Coffee, Cocoa, Copra, Gold, Copper	Port Moresby	Fish, Coffee, Cocoa, Copra, Palm Oil, Metalliferous Ores, Scrap	K686.9	K561.6
Solomon Islands	Independent State	29,785	220,000	Solomon Is. Dollar	$1.20	Fishery, Copra, Cocoa, Palm Oil	Honiara	Fish, Cocoa, Copra, Palm Oil, Wood Products	SI$60.2	SI$50.6
Tonga	Independent Monarchy	671	92,000	Pa'anga	$1.12	Tourism, Copra, Fishery	Nuku'Alofa	Copra, Bananas	P6.9	P26.2
Tuvalu (Ellis Islands)	Independent State	25	9,000	Australian Dollar	$1.15	Copra, Fishery, Bananas	Funa Futi	Copra	A$0.3	A$1.8
Vanuatu (New Hebrides)	Independent Republic	11,880	112,600	Franc N.H.	$1.84	Fishery, Tourism, Copra, Coffee, Cocoa	Vila	Cocoa, Copra, Wood Products	FNH2,851	FNH4,275
Wallis & Futuna	Overseas Territory of France	124	9,200	Coloniale Franc Pacifique	$0.18	Forestry, Bananas, Copra	Mata Utu	Copra	—	FCP524
Western Samoa	Independent State	2,934	155,800	Tala	$1.08	Cocoa, Copra, Coffee, Fishery, Hard Woods	Apia	Copra, Cocoa	T15	T60.9
Trust Territory of The Pacific Islands	U.N. Trust Territory Administered by U.S.A.	1,833	136,700	U.S. Dollar	$1.00	Fishery, Copra	—	—	$28.3	$38.4
Federated States of Micronesia Yap, Truk, Ponape, Kosrae			76,000	U.S. Dollar	$1.00	Fishery	Kolonia	Fish		
Northern Marianas			16,000	U.S. Dollar	$1.00	Fishery, Copra	Saipan	Fish, Copra		
Marshall Islands			29,700	U.S. Dollar	$1.00	Fishery, Copra	Majuro	Fish, Copra		
State of Palau			16,000	U.S. Dollar	$1.00	Fishery, Copra	Koro	Fish, Copra		



THE HAWAIIAN ISLAND CHAIN



TOPOGRAPHIC CROSS SECTION

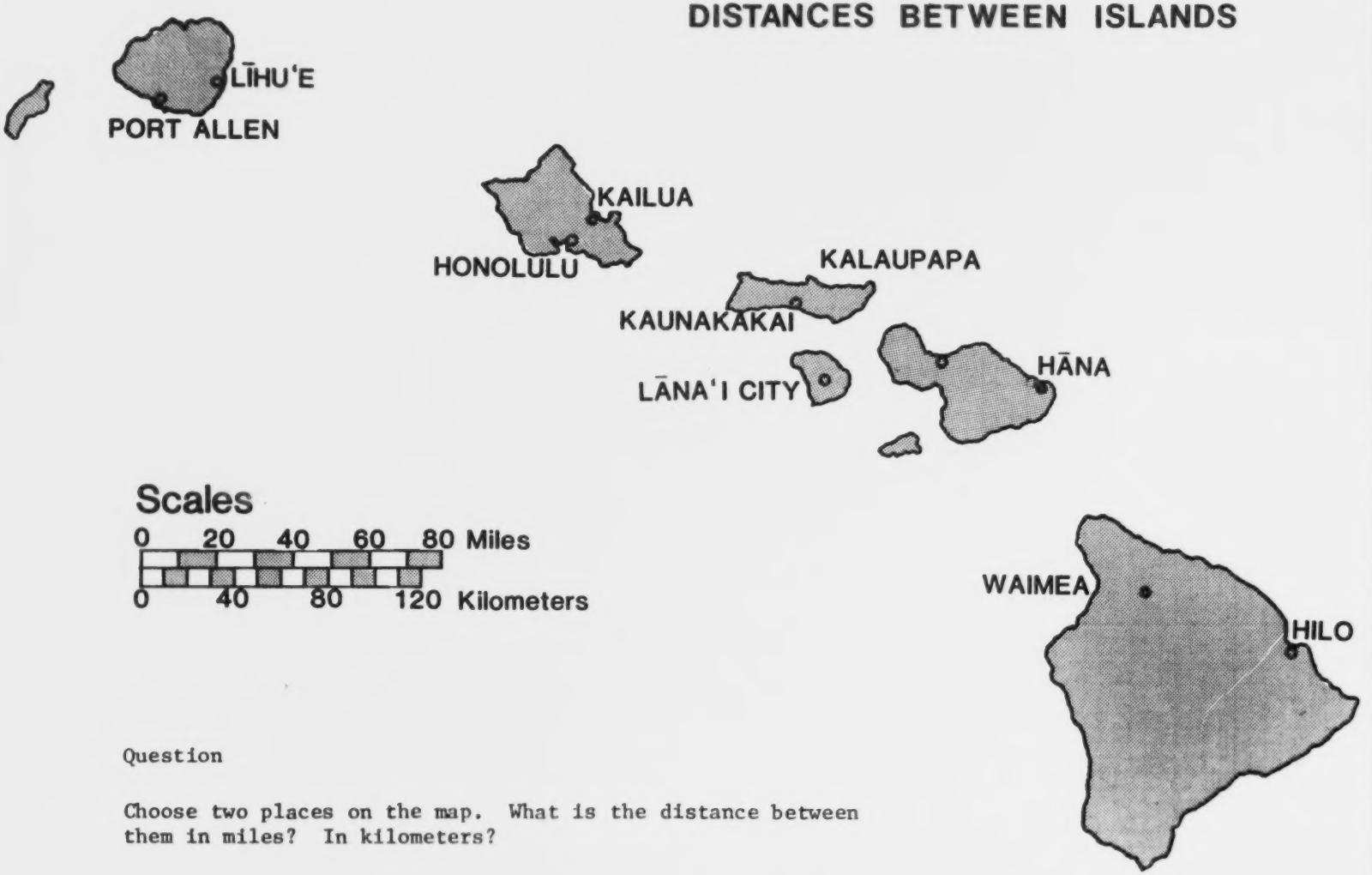
Dimensions and Areas of the Hawaiian Islands

Island	Extreme Length Miles	Extreme Width Miles	Total Area	
			Square Miles	Acres
Hawai'i	93	76	4,038	2,573,440
Maui	48	26	729	465,920
O'ahu	44	30	608	380,800
Kaua'i	33	25	553	352,640
Moloka'i	38	10	261	165,760
Lāna'i	18	13	140	90,240
Ni'ihau	18	6	73	46,080
Kaho'olawe	11	6	45	28,800
Minor Islets			3	1,920
TOTAL			6,450	4,105,600

Width and Depth of Channels

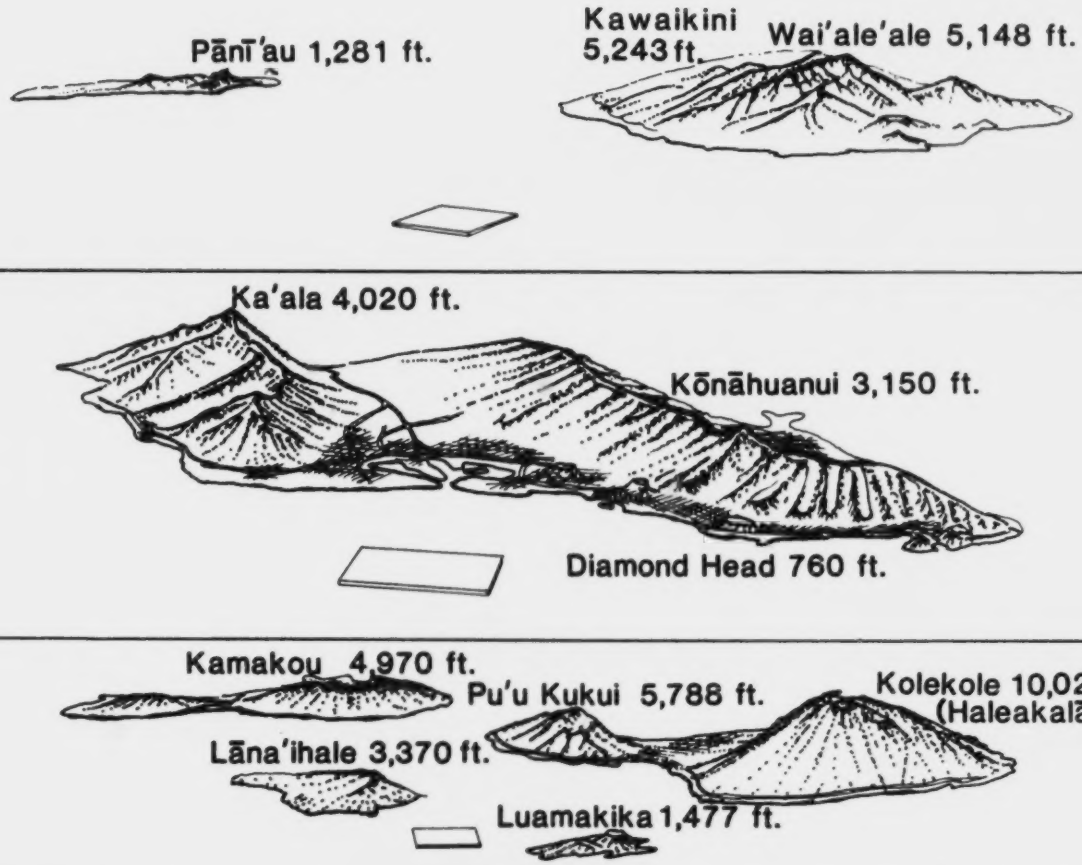
Name	Location (Between Islands)	Width in Miles	Depth in Feet
Kaua'i Channel	Kaua'i and O'ahu	72.1	10,890
Kaiwi Channel	O'ahu and Moloka'i	25.8	2,202
Kalohi Channel	Moloka'i and Lāna'i	9.2	540
'Au'au Channel	Lāna'i and Maui	9.5	252
Pailolo Channel	Moloka'i and Maui	8.8	846
Kealaikahiki Channel	Lāna'i and Kaho'olawe	17.8	1,086
'Alalākeiki Channel	Kaho'olawe and Maui	6.7	822
'Alenuihāhā Channel	Maui and Hawai'i	29.6	6,810
Kaulakahi Channel	Kaua'i and Ni'ihau	17.2	3,570

DISTANCES BETWEEN ISLANDS



Question

Choose two places on the map. What is the distance between them in miles? In kilometers?


Pānī'au 1,281 ft.
Kawaikini 5,243 ft.
Wai'ale'ale 5,148 ft.
Ka'ala 4,020 ft.
Kōnāhuanui 3,150 ft.
Diamond Head 760 ft.
Kamakou 4,970 ft.
Pu'u Kukui 5,788 ft.
Kolekole 10,023 ft. (Haleakalā)
Lāna'ihale 3,370 ft.
Luamakika 1,477 ft.
Mauna Kea 13,796 ft.
Kohala 5,480 ft.
Mauna Loa 13,677 ft.
Hualālai 8,271 ft.
HORIZONTAL SCALE INDICATED BY 5 MILE SQUARE QUADRANGLE.
THIS SCALE ALLOWS COMPARISON OF THE DRAWINGS' SIZES AND VIEWPLANES.

ADAPTED FROM A SKETCH BY A.AKINAKA

Major Elevations

The Name "Hawaii"

There have been several explanations as to how Hawaii got its name. One is that it is named after Hawai'i Loa, the traditional discoverer of the islands. The traditional homeland of the Polynesians, Hawaiki, is also given as the origin: *Hawa*, the name of the traditional homeland, and *-ii* or *-iki*, meaning little or small, thus, a smaller or new homeland. Since *-ii* also means raging or furious, the name is sometimes explained as referring to the volcanoes.

The traditional homeland of the Polynesians is referred to as Hawaiki in New Zealand and North Marquesas, 'Avaiki in the Cook Islands, and Savai'i in Samoa. In some areas, but not in Hawaii, it is the name of the underworld to which the dead went.

Hawaii is often written with the glottal stop mark: *Hawai'i*.

The State Popular Name

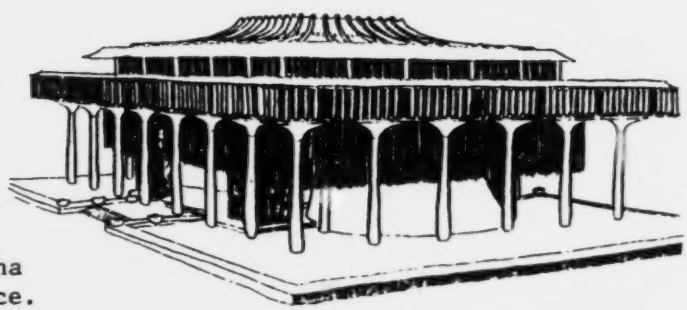
On April 23, 1959 the last Territorial Legislature officially designated "The Aloha State" as the official popular name for the State of Hawai'i.

Popular names for the major islands include

Hawai'i: The Big Island
Maui: The Valley Isle
O'ahu: The Gathering Place
Kaua'i: The Garden Isle
Moloka'i: The Friendly Isle
Lāna'i: The Pineapple Island
Ni'ihau: Island of Yesterday

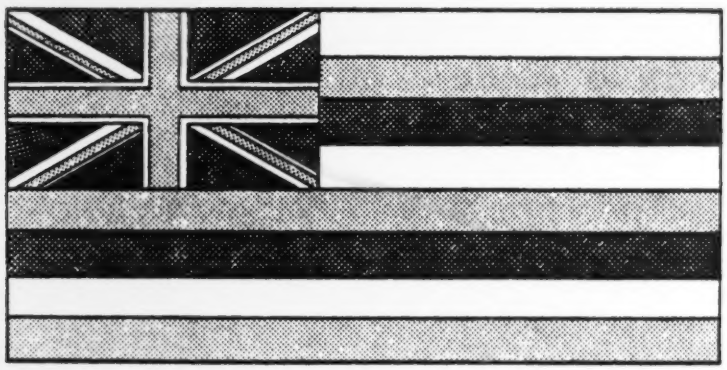
The State Capital

Article XV, Section 2, of the State Constitution establishes Honolulu as the capital of the State. It has been the capital city of the Islands since February 1845, when King Kamehameha III made it his permanent residence. Prior to this, Lahaina on the island of Maui was the capital.



the State Capitol building

The State Flag



The flag of Hawai'i is a combination of the American and British flags. It roughly resembles the American flag with its horizontal stripes of red, white, and blue. But in place of the field of stars, there appears a British Union Jack design.

The flag is said to have been designed by Kamehameha I in 1816. It has served as the flag of the Kingdom, the Republic, the Territory, and is now the official banner of the State as established in the State Constitution (Article XV, Section 3).

The stripes represent the eight major islands of the Hawaiian Island chain.

The State Languages

In 1978 English and Hawaiian were established as the State's two official languages (Article XV, Section 4, of the State Constitution).

The Hawaiian language is one of the world's most melodious. Twelve alphabets (vowels a, e, i, o, u; consonants h, k, l, m, n, p, and w) are used in the Hawaiian language. A glottal stop, or *'okina* ('), which is considered a consonant, is also used.

Beginning in the early 1970s, a resurgence of learning Hawaiian has taken place due, in part, to a Hawaiian cultural renaissance.

The State Motto

"Ua mau ke ea o ka ʻāina i ka pono"

meaning "The life of the land is perpetuated in righteousness," is the official State Motto. The saying is attributed to King Kamehameha III as of July 31, 1843, when the Hawaiian flag once more was raised after a brief period of unauthorized usurpation of authority by a British admiral. It has been the motto of the Kingdom, the Republic, and the Territory. It was made the State Motto by the 1959 Legislature.

The State Seal

The Great Seal of the State is an updated version of the first Coat of Arms of the Kingdom, which was designed by Chief Ha'alilo, Kamehameha III's secretary. In the center of the Seal is a heraldic shield. On the sides of the shield are figures of King Kamehameha I and the Goddess of Liberty holding the Hawaiian flag. The rising sun above the shield represents the birth of the State of Hawai'i. Below the shield is the phoenix surrounded by taro leaves, banana foliage, and sprays of maidenhair fern. The State Motto is inscribed in the lower part of the circle.

the Great Seal

24

The State Bird

nēnē

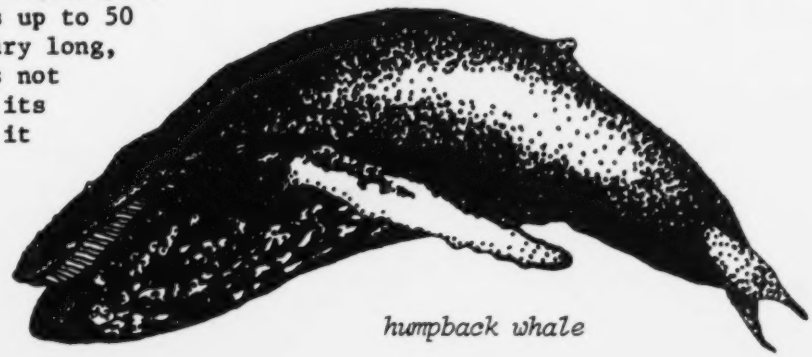
The *nēnē* (*Nesochen sandwicensis* or *Bernicata sandwicensis*) has been the emblematic State Bird since 1957. Pronounced "nay-nay," it is a variety of goose which has adapted itself to live in harsh lava country by transforming webbed feet to a clawlike shape and modifying wing structure for shorter flights. Its body is gray-brown but its bill, feet, face, and nape are black. It grows between 22 and 28 inches in length and is the largest land bird in Hawai'i.

A century ago, *nēnē* were fairly abundant on the island of Hawai'i. Hunting and wild animals all but destroyed the species until they were protected by law and a restoration project established in 1949. Today there are a few hundred wild *nēnē* and they are on the increase. Birds raised in captivity are released to join them.

The State Marine Mammal

The 1979 State Legislature officially designated the humpback whale (*Megaptera novaeangliae*) as the State Marine Mammal. This whale migrates to Hawai'i's warmer waters during the winter months to mate and to calf. In ancient times, the whale (*kohola*) was *kapu* to common people. If a carcass grounded on the land of a chief, it became his property. The ivory teeth and bones were made into highly prized ornaments for the chiefs. Hawaiians also believed that a whale leaping and blowing was a sign of an approaching storm.

The body of the humpback whale usually shades from black (back) to white (belly). It grows up to 50 feet and has extraordinary long, white flippers. It does not have a humpback but got its name because of the way it arches its back while diving. Because it moves slowly, it is an easy target for whalers. The humpback whale is an endangered species.



humpback whale

The State Flower

The hibiscus (*Malvaceae*) was established to be the State Flower by a joint resolution of the 1923 Legislature. Known in Hawaiian as *pū'a aloalo*, this flower grows in great profusion throughout the islands. There are more than 5,000 hybrids of the hibiscus in a rainbow of colors and combinations.

The Legislature also established official flowers and colors for each island as shown below.

hibiscus

Island	Flower	Color
Hawai'i	*lehua*	red
Maui	*lokelani* (pink common rose)	pink
O'ahu	*'ilima*	yellow
Kaua'i	*mokihana* (green berry)	purple
Moloka'i	*kukui* (white blossom)	green
Lāna'i	*kauna'oa* (orange airplant stems)	yellow
Ni'ihau	*pūpū* (white sea shells)	white
Kaho'olawe	*hinahina* (beach heliotrope)	gray

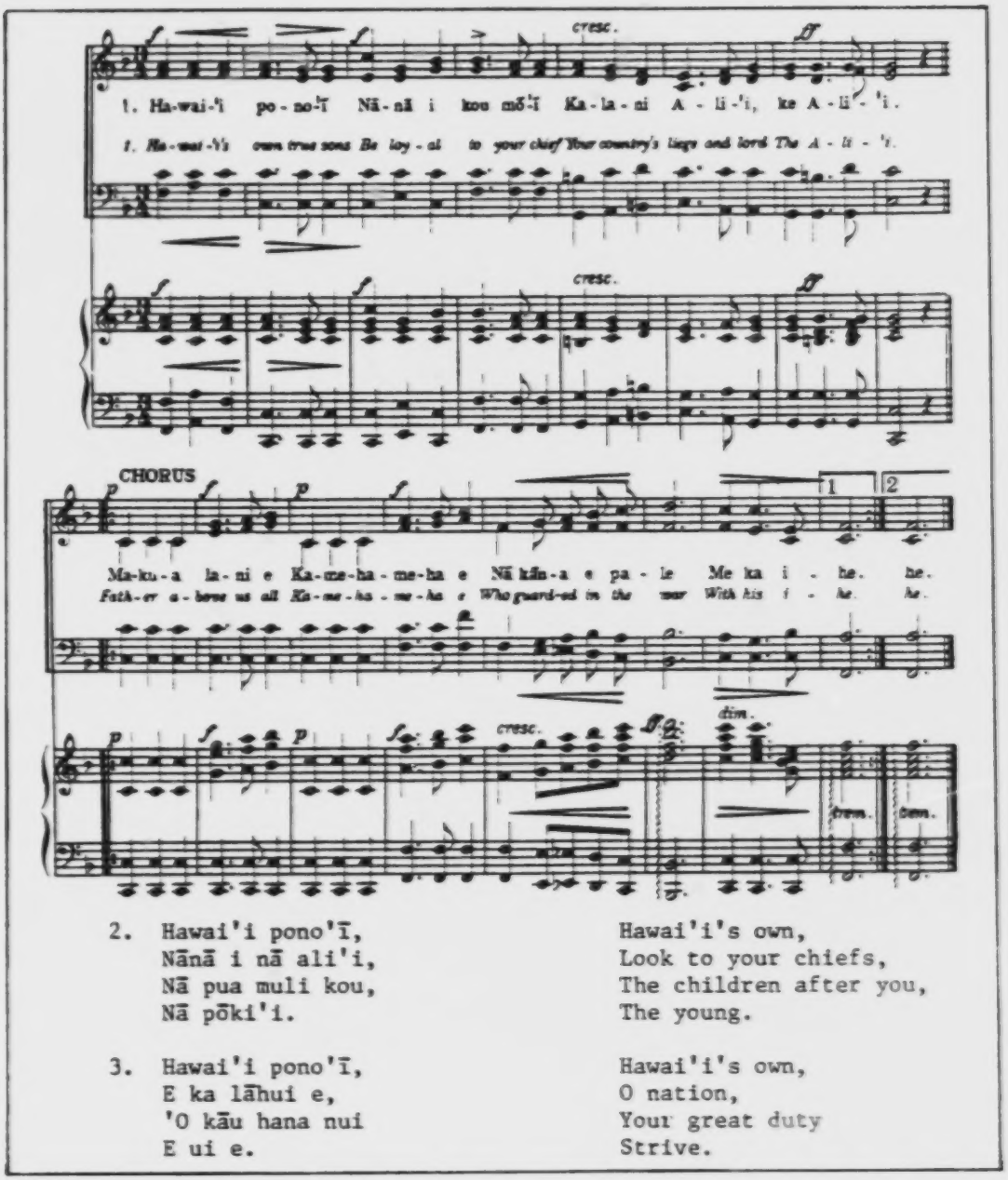
The State Tree

Hawai'i's State Tree as designated by the 1959 Legislature is the *kukui* (*Aleurites moluccana* [*L.*] *Willd.*), also known as the candlenut tree. The oil from the nuts was used as a light source by the early Hawaiians. The flowers, bark, fiber, and nuts were also used for medicine, dyes, canoes, fish nets, *kapa*, condiments, ornamentation, and as a glue for catching birds. Today, the polished shells of the *kukui* nuts are usually made into leis.

The tree grows on the lower slopes of mountains and in the lowlands, particularly in ravines. The light-colored greenish leaves covered, especially on the underside, with a silver gray powder, make it easy to spot in a forest. The tree can reach to heights of 90 feet in favorable conditions.

branch of the kukui nut tree

Hawai'i Pono'ī
The State Anthem


cresc.
1. Ha-wai-'i po-no-ī Nā-nā i kou mō-ī Ka-la-ni A-li-'i, ke A-li-'i.
1. Ha-wai-'i's own true sons Be loy-al to your chief Your country's liege and lord The A-li-'i.
cresc.
CHORUS
1
2
Ma-ku-a la-ni e Ka-me-ha-me-ha e Nā kūn-a e pa-le Me ka i-he. he.
Fath-er a-bove us all Ka-me-ha-me-ha e Who guard-ed in the war With his i-he. he.
cresc.
dim.
trem.
trem.

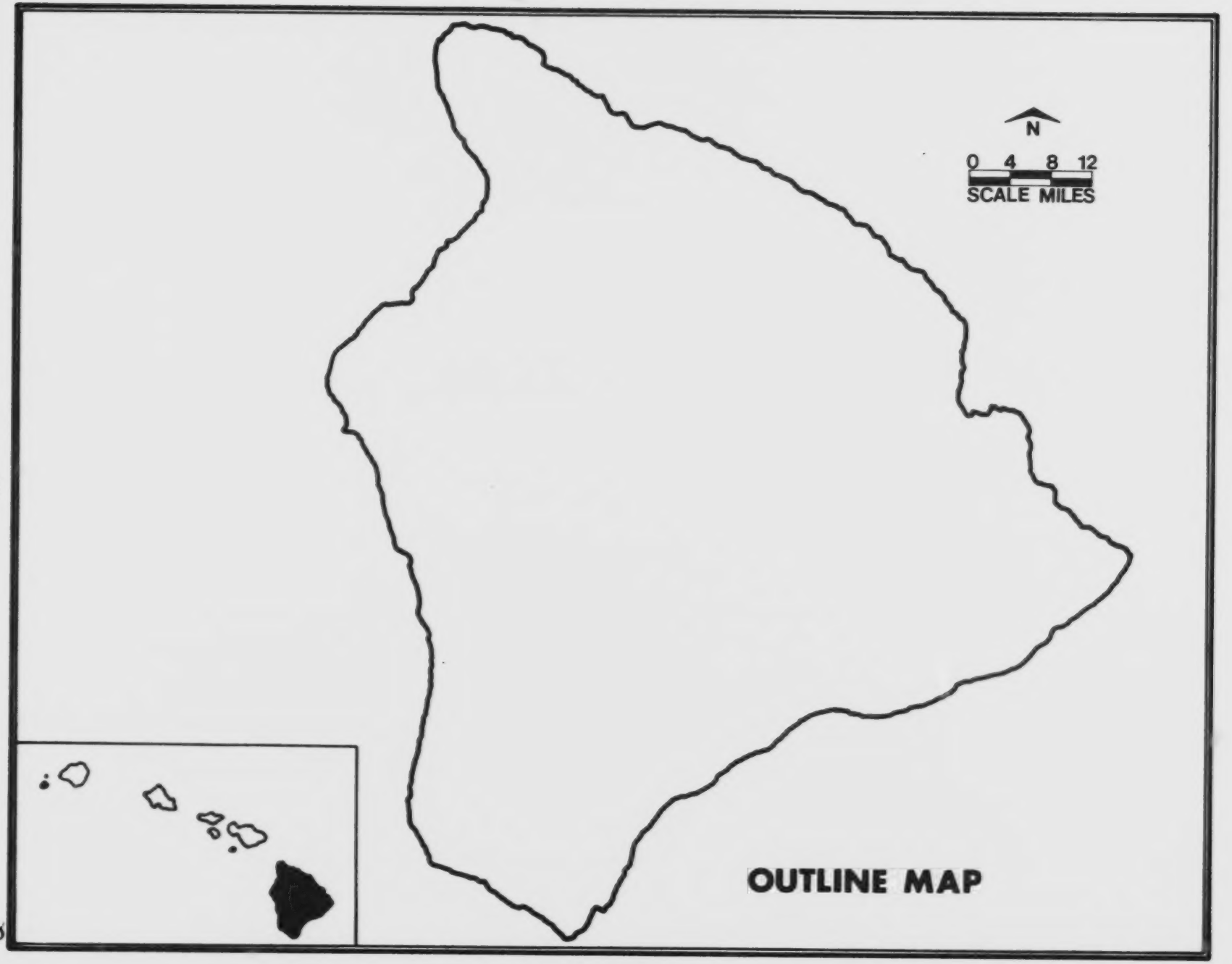
2. Hawai'i pono'ī,
Nānā i nā ali'i,
Nā pua muli kou,
Nā pōki'i.

Hawai'i's own,
Look to your chiefs,
The children after you,
The young.

3. Hawai'i pono'ī,
E ka lāhui e,
'O kāu hana nui
E ui e.

Hawai'i's own,
O nation,
Your great duty
Strive.

Hawai'i Pono'ī was written by King David Kalākaua and set to music by Captain Henry Berger, the Royal Bandmaster. It was first performed in Kawaiaha'o Church on November 16, 1874. The song has served as the anthem for both the Kingdom and the Territory of Hawai'i. In 1967 the State Legislature formally designated *Hawai'i Pono'ī* as the State Anthem.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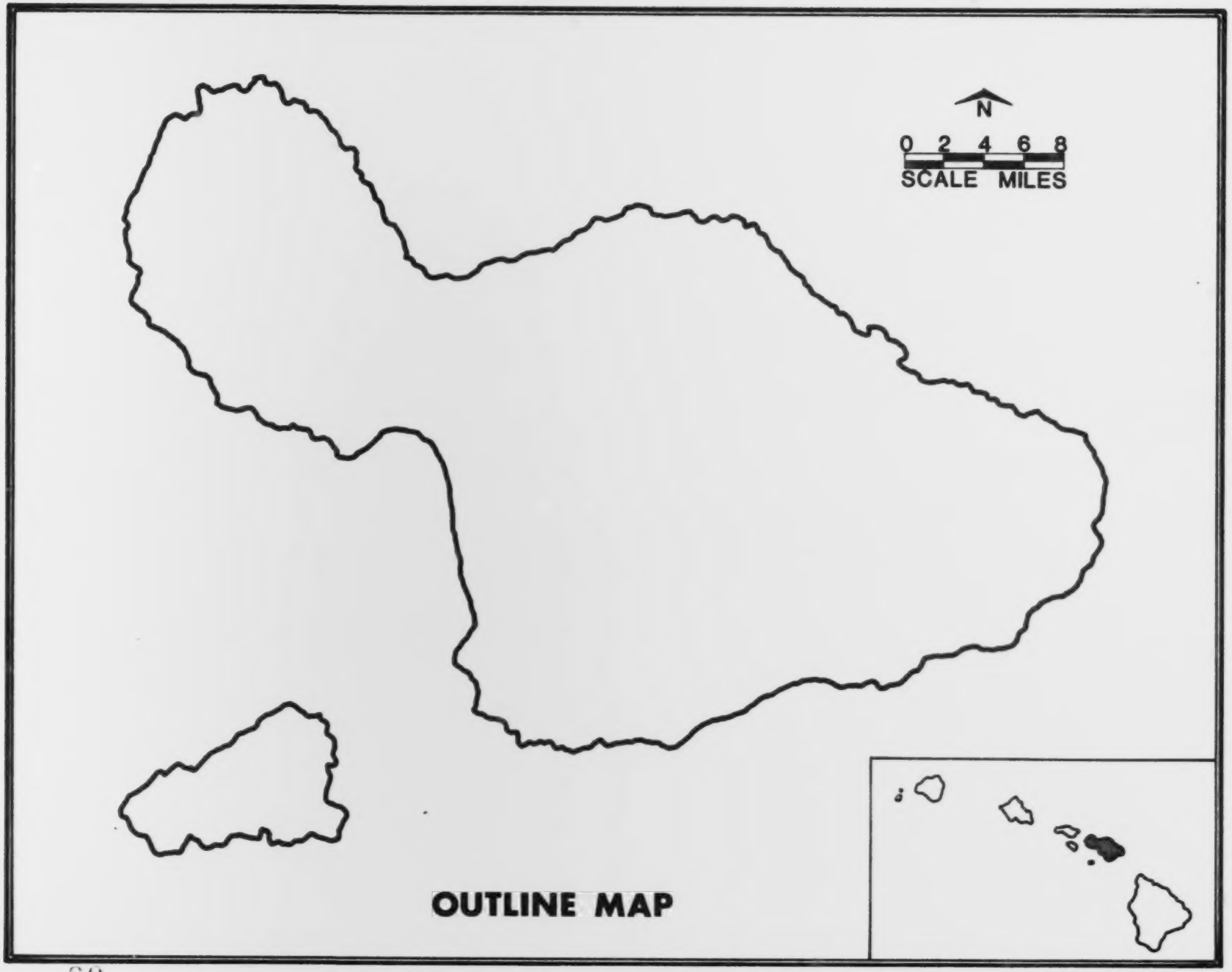

OUTLINE MAP

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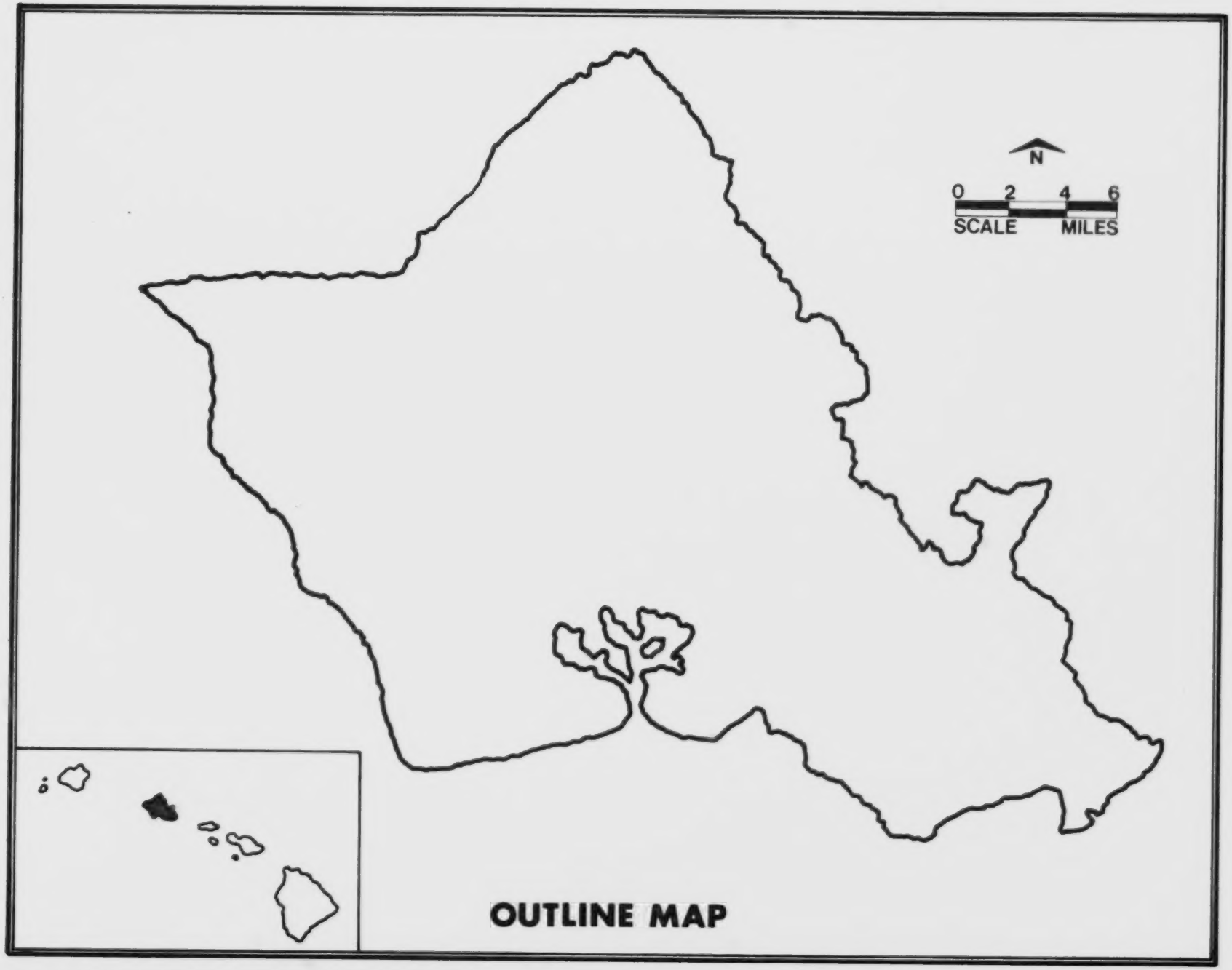

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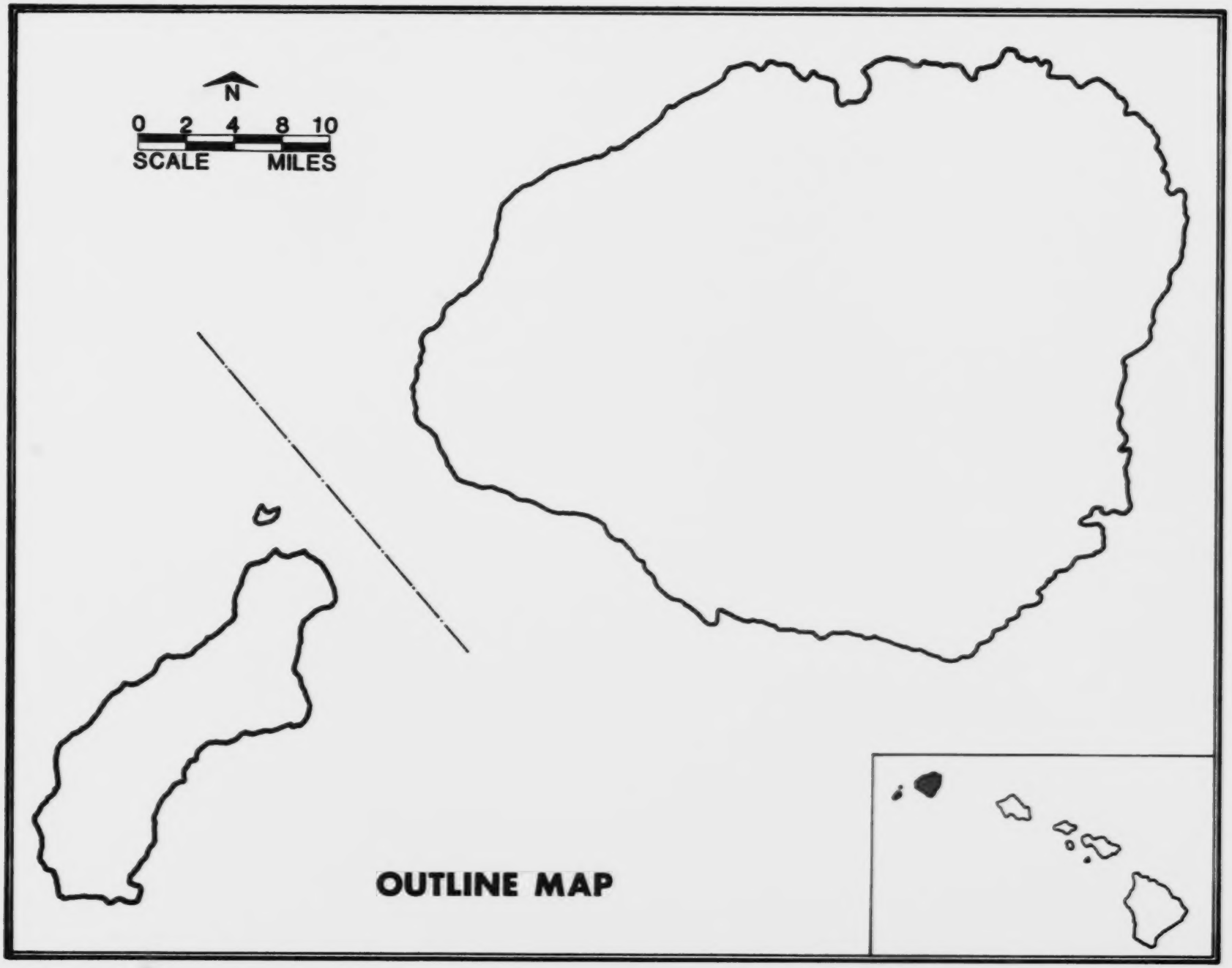
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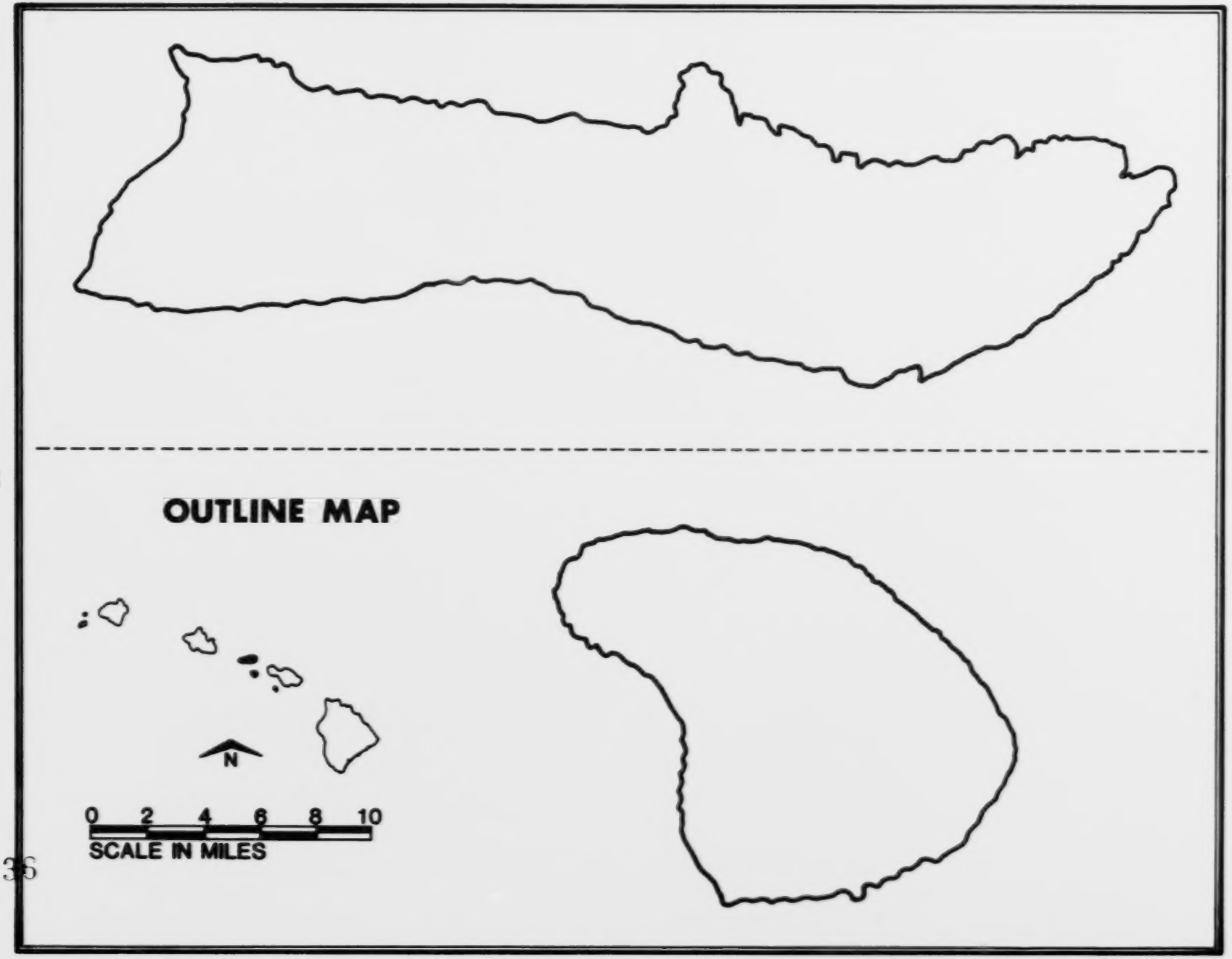
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Land Use

The Modern History of Land Use in Hawai'i

This outline can be used as an introduction to and/or a review of events and trends in Hawai'i's history. It provides background to an understanding of contemporary events and issues in our state and shows changes that have taken place over time. It can be used to spark discussion on pattern and relationships in events, possible causes of certain changes, why a certain event took place at a particular time, and what changes might occur in the future. Numerous activities are suggested for use with the outline.

DEFINITIONS

Alienate:	In land use, to sell the land.
Commission:	An official committee, usually formed by the government, with a specific job to perform.
Fee Simple:	Ownership of land.
Heredity:	In land use, the transfer of land use rights or ownership to family members after death.
Homesteading:	Moving to an unoccupied parcel of land for the purpose of farming or building a home.
Land award:	The giving of land use rights or ownership.
Land grant:	The same as land award.
Landlord:	The owner of buildings or land which is rented or leased.
Lease:	Legal agreement between the landlord and the tenant under which the tenant agrees to pay a regular fee to use buildings or land.
Māhele:	A division of the lands.
Property:	Anything owned, such as land, buildings, and livestock.
Property rights:	The ownership of property and the right to use, lease, or sell that property.
Tenant:	The person who lives in the buildings or on the land owned by the landlord.

OUTLINE

<u>1778-1819</u>

1770 to 1790	There is great insecurity and instability in the control of lands during wars between powerful chiefs.
1795	Kamehameha I unifies the Hawaiian Islands for the first time, restoring peace and stabilizing control of land for his supporters.
1813	AGRICULTURAL INNOVATION: Don Francisco de Paula Marin plants the first pineapple in Hawai'i.

1820-1839

1825 LEGAL INNOVATION: The Council of Chiefs approves the principle of heredity in landholding, which is a western legal *principle. It* strengthens the position of the landholding chiefs.

1825 AGRICULTURAL INNOVATION: An Englishman, John Wilkinson, sets up the first experimental sugar plantation in Mānoa Valley.

1835 LEGAL INNOVATION: Kamehameha III (Kauikeaouli) signs the first land lease permitting Ladd & Co. to set up Hawai'i's first permanent sugar plantation. It is located at Kōloa on Kaua'i.

1836 A British-Hawaiian treaty recognizes the property rights of both the Hawaiian king and English subjects. English subjects are permitted to reside in Hawai'i so long as they conform to the laws of the Islands. They may build houses and warehouses with the consent of the king. The treaty states that the king owns the land on which the houses are built but that the king has no authority to destroy those houses or damage British property.

1839 LEGAL INNOVATION: A declaration of rights protects the property rights of commoners from arbitrary seizure of property and limits taxation. This law is sometimes called the Hawaiian Magna Charta.

1840-1859

1840 LEGAL INNOVATION: The first Hawaiian Constitution recognizes the rights of commoners to share in the benefits of Hawai'i's land.

1840 AGRICULTURAL INNOVATION: Cultivation of the Irish potato begins on Maui, illustrating the growing importance of introduced crops.

1841 LEGAL INNOVATION: A standardized lease system is imposed on all foreigners holding land in Hawai'i, resulting in protests by those foreigners.

1841 LEGAL INNOVATION: A government proclamation declares that lands and fixed property on them cannot be sold and cannot be leased without the consent of the king. Only natives can acquire lands left after a person's death. This law is a reaction to the buying and selling of land by foreigners. The law applies only to future alienation of lands to foreigners.

1846 LEGAL INNOVATION: The Hawaiian government enacts a law permitting fee simple sale of lands to native Hawaiians (primarily the chiefs) but not to foreigners and the leasing of government lands to commoners and foreigners.

1846 LEGAL INNOVATION: The Land Commission is established to settle all land claims. This results in the Great

Māhele, an official division of the lands.

1848 LEGAL INNOVATION: The Great Māhele begins with the division of all lands between the king and the chiefs. Two hundred and forty-five *konohiki* (chiefs) are granted lands. The king's lands are further divided into private lands (Crown Lands) and government lands.

1850 LEGAL INNOVATION: The legislature passes the Kuleana Act which permits the granting of fee simple title to commoners for lands they live on and cultivate to feed themselves and their families.

1850 LEGAL INNOVATION: Resident aliens are granted the same rights as natives to own and sell fee simple land.

1854 to 1872 Hawai'i's main agricultural exports are sugar, rice, coffee, and *pulu* (the silky hair from ferns used to stuff pillows and mattresses).

1855 The Land Commission completes its work and is dissolved after making 9,337 land awards from 1848 to 1855, distributing approximately 1,000,000 acres of Crown Lands, 1,500,000 acres of government lands, 1,500,000 acres of chiefs' lands, and 30,000 acres of *kuleana* lands to commoners.

1856 AGRICULTURAL INNOVATION: The first large-scale irrigation ditch is constructed for the Līhu'e plantation on Kaua'i, beginning the use of a new technology destined to permit the growth of large-scale agriculture in Hawai'i.

1860-1879

1860 AGRICULTURAL INNOVATION: A new strain of rice is imported from South Carolina and is successfully planted. This helps to make rice an important export crop for Hawai'i.

1860 to 1870 There are now twelve sugar plantations in Hawai'i: three on Kaua'i, four on Maui, five on Hawai'i, none on O'ahu.

1860 to 1870 AGRICULTURAL INNOVATION: The first use of fertilizer to improve sugar production is tried at the Līhu'e plantation.

1861 to 1865 The American Civil War stimulates the demand for sugar, which encourages the expansion of Hawaiian plantations.

1864 LEGAL INNOVATION: A Hawai'i court declares the Crown Lands to be "inalienable," meaning they cannot be sold. This decision prevents the king from selling his lands, and thus preserves the landholdings of the Hawaiian monarchy.

1865 LEGAL INNOVATION: A new commission is established to govern the use of Crown Lands, incorporating the ongoing management of land into a formal government function.

1865 LEGAL INNOVATION: In response to the 1865 court decision, a law is passed prohibiting the sale of Crown Lands.

1873 King Lunalilo agrees with members of his cabinet to offer Pearl Harbor to the United States in order to gain approval of a reciprocity treaty to protect sugar interests in Hawai'i. However, the treaty is approved without the Pearl Harbor exchange.

1878 AGRICULTURAL INNOVATION: The Hāmākua irrigation ditch on Maui is completed. Noted for its size (17 miles long), it symbolizes the importance of water for the growth of sugar in Hawai'i.

1879 AGRICULTURAL INNOVATION: The first artesian well is drilled at the 'Ewa plantation, opening up the central O'ahu plain to large-scale agriculture.

25

1880-1899

1884 The Bishop Estate is established from the estate of Bernice Pauahi Bishop to benefit native Hawaiians.

1885 AGRICULTURAL INNOVATION: Varieties of pineapple are imported to improve the attractiveness of pineapple as a plantation crop.

1887 The right to use Pearl Harbor is granted to the United States in order to secure the renewal of the Reciprocity Treaty.

1891 AGRICULTURAL INNOVATION: The first attempts to can pineapple foreshadow the long-term importance of pineapple in Hawai'i's economy.

1893 The Hawaiian Kingdom is overthrown; Queen Lili'uokalani is forced to abdicate.

1895 LEGAL INNOVATION: The Republic of Hawai'i enacts the Land Act of 1895. One of its provisions establishes a policy of merging Crown and government lands and selling or leasing much of those lands to the large plantations.

1895 Sugar production in Hawai'i reaches 150,000 tons.

1898 LEGAL INNOVATION: Hawai'i is annexed by the United States. Enabling legislation does not come until the passage of the Organic Act in 1900 which makes Hawai'i a Territory.

1898 The U.S. government decides to use Pearl Harbor and the areas now known as Fort Shafter and Schofield Barracks for military purposes.

1900-1919

1900 By 1900, 70 percent of Hawai'i's lands are owned by non-Hawaiians.

1900 On seven islands there are 56 sugar plantations.

1900 LEGAL INNOVATION: Following annexation, the U.S. Congress passes the Organic Act. One provision limits agricultural leases of land to 1,000 acres and for only five years.

1900 to 1903 The pineapple industry begins at Wahiawā, O'ahu, with the Hawaiian Pineapple Company producing its first crop in 1903.

1903 LEGAL INNOVATION and LAND USE MANAGEMENT: The Territorial Legislature, recognizing the importance of conservation, passes a law which empowers the executive branch to set aside lands for forest and water reserves.

1905 Sugar production in Hawai'i reaches 426,000 tons.

1906 AGRICULTURAL INNOVATION: James D. Dole builds the world's largest fruit cannery, the Iwilei Pineapple Cannery. He paves the way for large-scale export of pineapple from Hawai'i.

1907 The U.S. completes construction of Fort Shafter, creating the first permanent military site in Hawai'i.

1908 LEGAL INNOVATION: An amendment to the 1900 Organic Act extends the limits on land leases from five years to 15 years.

1908 A naval base to be built at Pearl Harbor is authorized by the U.S. Congress.

1909 Schofield Barracks is occupied.

1910 LEGAL INNOVATION: The 1900 Organic Act is amended to permit the opening up of lands upon the request of 25 petitioners, permitting some homesteading for native Hawaiians.

1916 AGRICULTURAL INNOVATION: The Waiāhole Project collects windward O'ahu water for the central O'ahu agricultural plantations.

1920-1939

1920 LEGAL INNOVATION: Congress passes the Hawaiian Homes Commission Act. Lands which are considered poor in quality are provided to native Hawaiian homesteaders.

1921 LEGAL INNOVATION: Sugar interests are successful in repealing all limits (duration and size of leases) on leases under the Organic Act.

1922 The island of Lāna'i is purchased by the Hawaiian Pineapple Company.

1940-1959

1946 The report of Hawai'i's Land Laws Revision Commission concludes that homesteading for native Hawaiians has been a failure.

1956 By 1956, 10,000 native Hawaiians are living on Hawaiian Homes Commission lands.

1957 **LAND USE MANAGEMENT:** A land study bureau is established by the territorial government.

1957 **LAND USE MANAGEMENT:** A territorial planning office is established to prepare a general plan, which includes provisions relating to land use and management.

1957 The Nu'uanu Pali tunnels are dedicated, opening up the windward area of O'ahu to urbanization. In 1960 another route to the windward side, the Wilson tunnels, is completed.

1959 Hawai'i becomes a state.

1959 **LEGAL INNOVATION and LAND USE MANAGEMENT:** The State General Plan is completed. The first such plan in the U.S., it recommends that an effective land classification system be created. This later results in the 1961 Land Use Law.

1959 The State of Hawai'i owns 32 percent of the land; the U.S. government, 8 percent; and twelve large private land owners, 30 percent.

1960-1983

1960 By 1960, 65 percent of the world's supply of pineapple is grown on 75,000 acres in Hawai'i.

1961 **LEGAL INNOVATION:** The State Legislature passes a land tax law (known as the Pittsburgh Land Use Law, after its model) which calls for land to be taxed at its "highest and best use." This results in a rise in the price of land.

1961 **LAND USE MANAGEMENT:** Following the recommendations of the 1959 General Plan, the Legislature passes the 1961 Land Use Law (known as the Greenbelt Law) establishing a Land Use Commission to categorize all lands into urban, rural, agricultural, or conservation classifications.

1961-present Under pressure from developers, the State Land Use Commission approves numerous conversions of agricultural land to urban use. On O'ahu, major plantations are reduced to a minimum size, threatening their profitability.

1965 As rapid economic growth comes to Hawai'i, large land developments such as the Ala Moana Shopping Center and Henry Kaiser's plan for Hawai'i Kai are approved by government agencies.

1967 **LEGAL INNOVATION:** The Legislature passes a law, popularly known as the Maryland Law, to force conversion of land from lease to fee simple.

1968 **LAND USE MANAGEMENT:** The State produces a State Comprehensive Outdoor Recreation Plan (SCORP), which identifies Hawai'i's recreational resources and focuses attention on efforts to protect and enhance those resources.

1970-present **LAND USE MANAGEMENT:** Stimulated by the national environmental movement, a number of community organizations become involved in land use issues. Life of the Land, the Sierra Club, Friends of the Earth, the American Lung Association, Citizens against Noise, the Conservation Council, the Council of Presidents, Hawai'i's Thousand Friends, and more become active in reforming and enforcing land use laws in Hawai'i.

1970-present **LAND USE MANAGEMENT:** A series of land use conflicts forces the state and county governments to respond with environmental laws and planning for wiser use of natural resources. These conflicts include protests and confrontatins in Kalama Valley, Ohta Camp, Chinatown, Sand Island, Kaho'olawe, and Waiāhole-Waikāne. Environmental issues such as the pollution of Kāne'ohe Bay, the building of the reef runway, the ownership of the shoreline, and the proposed H-3 freeway further mobilize public opinion. The political system responds with shoreline protection and coastal zone management laws, requirements for environmental impact statements, and tighter controls on development.

1970-present **LAND USE MANAGEMENT:** Ethnic Hawaiians begin to organize political action groups dealing with land reform issues of interest to the Hawaiian community. Issues include the right of native Hawaiians to live near the shoreline to pursue a traditional life style, the protection of sacred Hawaiian historical sites, the proper use of Hawaiian Homes lands, and federal control of important lands such as Kaho'olawe.

1972 **LAND USE MANAGEMENT:** The State Legislalature establishes a natural area reserves system to protect and conserve certain lands.

1972 **LAND USE MANAGEMENT:** The State Legislature passes a park dedication law mandating county ordinances which recognize the importance of parks in rapidly growing urban areas.

1973 **LAND USE MANAGEMENT:** The State Legislature requires public beach access to be provided by shoreline developers.

1973 **LEGAL INNOVATION:** The Hawai'i Supreme Court, in the famous and still being appealed *McBryde* case, declares water to be a publicly owned resource and limits the absolute control of fresh water streams by private interests.

1974 **LEGAL INNOVATION and LAND USE MANAGEMENT:** The U.S. Congress passes the National Environmental Protection Act which requires Environmental Impact Statements (EIS) for various land use proposals. The EIS becomes a major tool of environmentalists and conservationists in fighting land use development.

1974 **LAND USE MANAGEMENT:** Hawai'i adopts an agricultural dedication law which imposes tax penalties on landowners who wish to convert their agricultural lands to urban uses.

1975 **LEGAL INNOVATION and LAND USE MANAGEMENT:** The State enacts the Shoreline Protection Act, a major innovation in the protection of Hawai'i's shoreline environments.

1977 **LEGAL INNOVATION:** The so-called Pittsburgh Law, requiring taxes on land to be based not on actual use but on the highest potential use, is repealed because of its role in stimulating overdevelopment and high land prices.

1977 After years of controversy and confrontation, the State buys Waiāhole Valley for an agricultural park. It saves the valley from a planned housing development.

1978 **LEGAL INNOVATION and LAND USE MANAGEMENT:** The State enacts the Hawai'i Coastal Zone Management Act to regulate coastal developments and to ensure continued options in land use for the future.

1978 **LEGAL INNOVATION:** The 1978 Constitutional Amendments establish the right to a clean and healthful environment, the right of a citizen to sue the State to enforce existing environmental laws, and mandate the establishment of a special government agency to control the use of fresh water throughout the State.

1980-present **LAND USE MANAGEMENT:** As air traffic increases at Honolulu Airport, pressure grows to build another airport on O'ahu to alleviate small plane traffic. Most proposed sites are rejected by surrounding communities because of expected noise and safety problems. The State recommends the conversion of agricultural lands in central O'ahu, but defenders of agriculture veto this idea. In 1982 the focus of discussion shifts to the possible use of federal air fields. Negotiations continue.

1980-present **LAND USE MANAGEMENT:** Voters on Kaua'i use their right to make laws through the process of initiative to reject a proposed hotel development at Nukoli'i. Developers, who already have received certain permits, gain court permission to continue, in spite of the initiative vote. A subsequent court ruling halts all construction. Court action continues.

1982 High levels of the pesticide heptachlor are found in Hawai'i-produced milk products. This is one of several cases of contamination of soil, water, and crops by agricultural pesticides.

1982-present The U.S. government begins to sell land in Hawai'i owned by the federal government, causing fear that such sales will disrupt land use plans.

1983 A federal court holds Hawai'i's leasehold conversion law of 1967 to be unconstitutional. Ongoing negotiations between large estates and private homeowners are halted. The case continues on appeal.

1983 The agricultural industry lobbies the State Legislature for price supports as sugar and pineapple producers warn that low prices will eventually destroy large-scale agriculture in Hawai'i.

1983 The State Legislature passes a law permitting geothermal energy development on Campbell Estate land in the Big Island conservation districts. Big Island protestors claim health hazards from noise and sulfur fumes. Others argue the need for alternative energy.

Activities for the Outline, "The Modern History of Land Use in Hawai'i"

Activity 1: Legal Innovation

a. Consider the following 1836 legal innovation in land use, taken from the outline:

> 1836 A British-Hawaiian treaty recognizes the property rights of both the Hawaiian king and English subjects. English subjects are permitted to reside in Hawai'i so long as they conform to the laws of the Islands. They may build houses and warehouses with the consent of the king. The treaty states that the king owns the land on which the houses are built but that the kind has no authority to destroy those houses or damage British property.

(1) What do you think is meant by "property rights"?
(2) What parts of the treaty do you think represent the interests of the king?
(3) What parts of the treaty do you think represent the interests of the British?
(4) Why do you think this treaty has been labeled a "Legal Innovation"?
(5) How is this legal innovation related to the legal innovation of 1839, the declaration of rights?

b. Make a list of the legal innovations between 1825 and 1855. For each legal innovation, indicate why you think it was listed as an innovation. What impacts do you think they had?

c. In one page, write a short essay answering the following question:

> What were the most important legal innovations in land use between 1825 and 1855, and why were they important?

d. In your judgment, what are the three most important legal innovations in land use between 1840 and 1859? Give reasons why you chose those three, including the probable impact you think they might have had on Hawaiian society.

Activity 2: Agricultural Innovation

a. Based on the agricultural innovations between 1820 and 1859, write a short paragraph describing what you think agriculture was like in Hawai'i during this period. In other words, how large was it? What were the major crops?

b. Why do you think the first large irrigation ditch was so important?

Activity 3: Land Use Periods

a. Make a list of dates of all the legal innovations found in the outline.

b. Make a list of dates of all the agricultural innovations.

c. Make a list of dates of all the land use management items.

d. If you had to divide Hawai'i's history into land use periods, what dates would you list for the following: the Era of Legal Innovations; the Era of Agricultural Innovations; the Era of Land Use Management.

e. Write a paragraph on why you think there were so many examples of legal innovations during that era.

f. Write a paragraph on why you think there were so many agricultural innovations.

g. Do the same for land use management.

h. Write a paragraph describing what was happening to the Hawaiian people during each era.

i. List two famous persons of Hawai'i who lived during each period (based on the dates you have selected).

j. List one President of the United States who lived during each of the periods you selected.

k. List one event in American history which happened during each of the periods you selected.

Activity 4: Ten Significant Events

If you had to pick the ten most significant events in the outline, which would you choose? Give at least two reasons why you think each of your choices deserves to be on your list.

Activity 5: What Came First?

Number the following events from the land use outline in the proper sequence, the earliest as #1, the latest, as #10.

_____ a. The "Greenbelt Law" establishes the Land Use Commission to place all lands into four districts: conservation, agricultural, urban, and rural.

_____ b. Kamehameha I unifies the islands.

_____ c. The Great Māhele.

_____ d. The American Civil War stimulates the demand for Hawaiian sugar.

_____ e. James Dole builds the Iwilei pineapple cannery.

_____ f. Hawai'i's Legislature passes the Coastal Zone Management law.

_____ g. Kamehameha III signs the first agricultural lease with Ladd & Co.

_____ h. The Hawaiian Homes Commission Act is passed by Congress.

_____ i. Statehood.

_____ j. The U.S. gets Pearl Harbor.

Activity 6: True or False

_____ a. Sugar was never grown in Hawai'i until the 1870s.

_____ b. Early conflicts with westerners arose over their desire to own Hawaiian land.

_____ c. The first Constitution in 1840 recognizes certain rights by commoners to share in the benefits of Hawai'i's lands.

_____ d. The Great Māhele was the first western law in Hawai'i relating to land use.

_____ e. In the nineteenth century (1800 to 1899), Hawai'i never had a diversified agricultural industry with many crops.

_____ f. The Great Māhele did not affect the lands belonging to the king. Only the chiefs' lands were divided.

_____ g. The commoners were granted *kuleana* land grants after the passage of a special law in 1850.

_____ h. The Bishop Estate was established by the Hawaiian Homes Commission Act.

_____ i. The Hāmākua irrigation ditch was one of the main accomplishments of Kamehameha the Great.

_____ j. Pearl Harbor was given to the U.S. in order to win support for a renewal of the Reciprocity Treaty.

_____ k. None of the men involved in the overthrow of the monarchy was connected with the sugar industry. They were all missionaries.

_____ l. The pineapple industry started originally in Wahiawā.

_____ m. The "Pittsburgh Land Use" law dealt with leasehold conversion.

_____ n. The "Greenbelt Law" divided all lands into four districts: urban, rural, agricultural, and conservation.

_____ o. Many Hawaiian groups were involved in land use conflicts during the 1970s.

Activity 7: The Great Māhele

The Great Māhele is seen by many historians as one of the most significant events in Hawaiian history. The lands of the Kingdom were surveyed using western methods. They were divided between the King, the Chiefs, and the commoners, and western concepts of private property were applied. In a few years most of the lands were owned by non-Hawaiians.

The purpose of this activity is to understand what may have caused or influenced this westernization of the land system.

a. Read the land use outline between 1820 and 1848, the year of the Māhele. What items can you find which may have contributed to, or caused the Māhele? Make a list of these items. Now read through the same section and make a list of any items you think helped to support the continuation of the traditional Hawaiian land system.

b. Since the Māhele is important in the social history of Hawai'i as well, read the social history outline between 1820 and 1848. What items, if any, do you think might have contributed to the westernization of the land system? Now read the same section and select items, if any, which might have prevented or slowed down westernization. Add to your two lists begun in question "a" above.

c. Review the same period, 1820 to 1848, in the government outline. Again, add to your two lists, if appropriate.

d. Do the same with the economic outline.

e. Read through your lists for review. Choose one statement you agree with, and write an essay defending it.

(1) The Great Māhele could have been prevented by Kamehameha III if he had wanted to.

OR

(2) The Great Māhele was inevitable. There was no way it could have been prevented by the King.

OR

(3) The most influential group in pushing for the Māhele was the missionaries. In many ways they were responsible.

OR

(4) The most influential group in pushing for the Māhele was the foreign merchants. In many ways they were responsible.

OR

(5) Write your own statement about the causes of the Māhele and write an essay defending it.

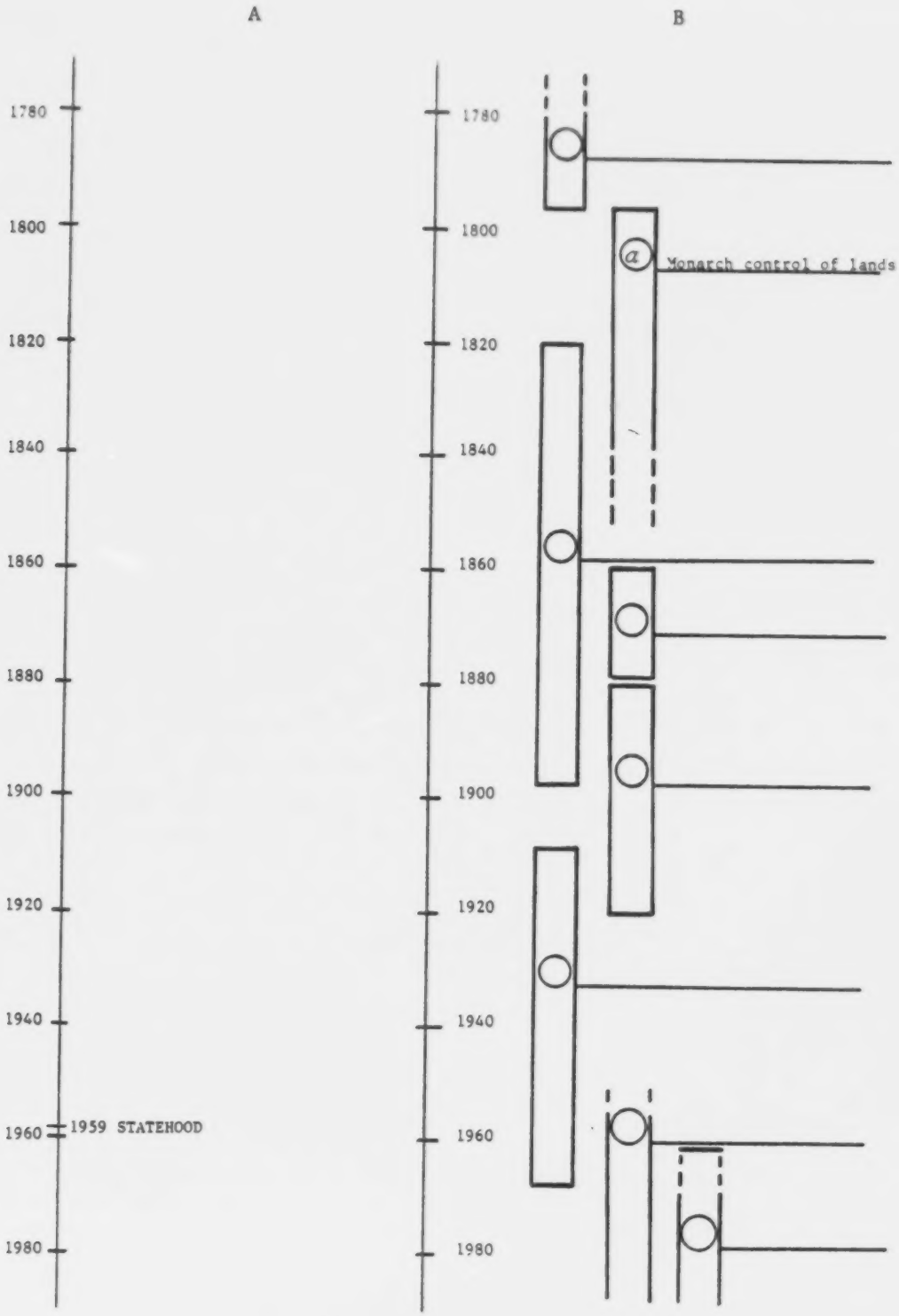
Activity 8: Land Use Time Line

A. Plot and label the following events.

a. Kamehameha I unifies the islands.
b. Kamehameha III signs the first agricultural lease for the first sugar plantation.
c. The Great Māhele
d. The American Civil War begins.
e. The U.S. gets Pearl Harbor.
f. Dole builds the first pineapple cannery.
g. Hawaiian Homes Commission Act
h. Statehood
i. The "Greenbelt Law"
j. The Coastal Zone Management Law

B. Label the correct historical periods.

a. Monarch control of lands
b. Era of Land Use Management
c. Consolidation of plantation system
d. Dominance of pineapple and sugar in Hawai'i's economy
e. Transition from diversified farming to plantation agriculture
f. *Ali'i* control of lands
g. Transfer of and ownership for foreigners
h. Urbanization of agricultural land


A
B
1780
1800
1820
1840
1860
1880
1900
1920
1940
1960
1980
1959 STATEHOOD
a
Monarch control of lands

The Māhele

by Marion Kelly

Until the mid-1800s, the Hawaiian people had the right to use land for subsistence production--that is, to raise crops to feed their families. But in the mid-1800s, this changed. Land became a privately-owned commodity that could be bought and sold.

The basic process of this change in land tenure took only about ten years, from December 1845, when the legislature established a Board of Commissioners to Quiet Land Titles, until March 1855, when the Board of Commissioners dissolved. But the impact of the Māhele of 1850, and the actions of the Board of Commissioners have lasted to the present.

In 1845, the economic situation in the Islands was poor. The Northwest-Coast-to-China fur trade was no longer of value to the Islands. The sandalwood trade had ended with the destruction of the sandalwood forests, and had left the Hawaiian king and chiefs heavily in debt to the foreign merchants. Also, the limits of the whaling industry were beginning to be recognized. Financially successful resident merchants were looking for some other industry in which to invest their profits from these past income makers. Agriculture, they felt, was their best bet. Its success hinged on a number of things. The most important thing they wanted was to have the Hawaiian system of use-rights land tenure changed into the western system of private ownership of land.

Among the reasons cited for changing the land tenure system at this time was the interest of foreigners in acquiring land with "secure and permanent titles . . . not subject to the uncertainties and limitations of the existing system" (Kuykendall Vol. 1:273).

It was often repeated that, if given secure title to land, "foreign enterprise would furnish an example that would be a spur to native industry, and the Hawaiian could learn from his more experienced foreign neighbors how to improve his own methods of operations . . ." (*Ibid.*). What they were referring to, of course, was commercial agriculture. The Hawaiians were already masters of subsistence agriculture.

Upon the advice of Reverend William Richards and Dr. Gerrit P. Judd, missionaries who joined the Hawaiian Government as advisors, the legislature established a Board of Commissioners to Quiet Land Titles in December 1845, and the king appointed its members early in 1846. Shortly thereafter, the Commissioners placed a notice in the newspaper announcing that people who wished to receive awards of land had to register their claims by February 14, 1848. They then worked on a statement of "Principles" that they adopted on August 20, 1846. These "Principles" state, among other things, that there were

> but three classes of persons having vested rights in the land--first, the Government (including the king), second, the landlord, and third, the tenant (Principles . . .).

Further, the Commissioners wrote:

> . . . a tract of land now in the hands of a landlord and occupied by tenants, if all parts of it were equally

> valuable, might be divided into the three equal parts,
> and an allodial title to one then be given to the lord,
> and the same title be given to the tenants of one third,
> and the other third would remain in the hands of the King
> as his proportional right (Principles . . .).

Although this was the wording of the "Principles" adopted by the Board of Commissioners, in actuality the final division and the results were quite different.

In the traditional Hawaiian land tenure system, everyone had use rights to the land: king, chiefs, and people.

The first problem to be solved, the Commissioners thought, was that of separating what was perceived as the rights that the king and the chiefs had in the land, and at the same time, respecting the rights of the people, the *maka'āinana*. It was thought that the *maka'āinana* would register their claims and would at some future unstated time go before the commissioners with the chiefs, the king, or the government--the owners of the *ahupua'a* agreeing with their claims--and be awarded deeds to their lands. However, it didn't happen this way.

A new concept was being put forward at this point: to consider the king separately from the government in order to protect the land the king claimed as his own private land. It was argued that if a foreign country should take over the Hawaiian Islands, only private property would be respected; all government property would be confiscated and taken by the foreign invader. If the king and the Hawaiian Government were not separate, the king would stand to lose all his lands, as would the chiefs and all the people, so the argument went (Ltr. Wyllie to Judd, Nov. 1849, see Kuykendall 1938 (1):291, footnote 87).

Judge William Little Lee, an American and a member of the Board of Commissioners, came up with the plan that was finally adopted. Lee said that the king and the government were separate; therefore, the king should retain his lands as his individual private property. The remaining lands were to be divided into three parts, one-third to the government, one-third to the chiefs, and one-third to the tenants, the *maka'āinana*.

All this planning for the *māhele* occurred in a time of no television, no radio, and no telephones to get the message out to the people. Honolulu was the only urban city; there were a few small towns, but even fewer newpapers. It was a time when most of the population were Hawaiian-speaking farmers and fishermen living in dispersed settlements in remote rural areas, and most of them a long distance from Honolulu.

The laws, and the way they were administered, despite all the declarations of concern for the *maka'āinana*, were not only inadequate to protect the rights of the people; they often permitted and intensified the oppressive control over the *maka'āinana*, either by chiefs or foreigners, who quickly gained ownership and control over large tracts of land.

Two questions demand answers: (1) how was it possible for persons who were responsible for developing and administering these laws to have been so far off in their judgments; and (2) were they really ignorant of the consequences of their actions?

Because he discovered early in December 1847 that "not a dozen" claims had been registered for the whole island of Hawai'i, Commissioner Lee sent

letters out to the Protestant missionaries on Hawai'i, asking them to "exert" themselves to "arouse" the people to send in their claims "immediately." (Ltr. Lee to Coan, Paris, Thurston, and Lyons, Dec. 9, 1847). This was only about two months before the deadline for the people to register their land claims.

Of course, this was a case of too little, as well as too late. It was totally inadequate to make up for nearly two years of resistance by the chiefs and their land agents to the filing of the claims by the people.

Some may say that at this point the deadline should have been extended, and the Board of Commissioners should have gone out into the countryside and registered the lands of the farmers themselves. But nothing like that was done. One naturally questions, why not?

Even for those *maka'āinana* who had been successful in registering their claims, nothing was done to assure that they would receive their awards. Judge Lee and the authors of the laws had left the division of land rights between a chief and his tenants to take place, in Lee's word, "whenever any Chief or Tenant shall desire such division;" similarly, land divisions with tenants living in the *ahupua'a* or *'ili 'āina* claimed by the king were to take place "whenever His Majesty or any of said tenants shall desire such division" (Ltr. Lee to Kamehameha III, Dec. 14, 1847).

Perhaps Lee, being a newcomer to the Islands, did not really understand the consequences of such a loose arrangement provided by the authors of the land laws. But certainly the other authors and advisors knew very well what problems would be created; they did nothing to solve them.

Even Judge Lee began to understand where the resistance was coming from, when he wrote on January 12, 1848: "The idea of common *kanakas* sending in their claims is not so popular with the Chiefs as it should be, for they say . . . that the *konohikis* can send in their claims and the Tenants still hold their lands the same as ever—But this would be for the people to gain nothing" (Ltr. Lee to C. B. Andrews, Jan. 12, 1848).

Thus, if the chiefs had their way, they and the king would receive fee simple title to the land. The *maka'āinana* would continue to live on and cultivate the land without fee simple title to it. The *maka'āinana* would be at the mercy of the *konohiki*, the chief who owned the *ahupua'a*, or anyone he might sell it to. The *konohiki* would have the power to dispossess their tenants anytime they felt like doing so. Basically, history shows that the chiefs' interests prevailed.

The division of lands between the king and the chiefs began on January 27, 1848. A total of 245 Hawaiian chiefs came forward to divide their lands with the king in the next few weeks. In addition, six non-Hawaiian surnames appear in the Māhele Book: John Hall, Gerrit P. Judd, George Shaw, William Steven, John Stevenson, and T. Tute.

The king's lands were listed on one page and the chief's lands on the opposite page of the Māhele Book, with each signing away any rights they might have had in the other's lands.

The *māhele* between the king and chiefs continued to March 7, 1848, until, essentially, all the lands in the islands had been assigned either to the king or to one of the *konohiki* listed in the Māhele Book. The next day, March 8th, the king divided his *māhele* lands between (1) his own personal lands, known then as "The King's Lands," and (2) the "Government Lands."

The chiefs obtained their award from the Commission on the basis of the lands listed under their names in the Māhele Book. They were required to commute to the Government the value of one-third of their lands, or surrender an amount of land of equivalent value.

By the time the February 14, 1848 deadline for *maka'āinana* to file their claims had passed, the number of individual claimants who had registered with the Board of Commissioners was less than 13,500.

The Board of Commissioners continued to hear testimony on parcels of land in Honolulu and a few towns on the neighbor islands, and to receive applications from chiefs on lands listed in the Māhele Book. But basically nothing was done about the claims of the *maka'āinana* for two and a half years. On August 6, 1850, the legislature passed the Kuleana Act, which directed the Board of Commissioners to grant fee-simple titles to *maka'āinana* occupying certain lands. This act tightened up the loose wording of the earlier law.

Houselots were not to exceed one-fourth acre and garden lands were limited to only those actually being cultivated by each claimant to feed only himself and his family. A farmer was not permitted to claim any land on which he grew crops for the market. A farmer had to have lived and cultivated the land for two years without anyone objecting to his presence.

In addition, all pasture and uncultivated land that remained after the *maka'āinana* received the deed to his *kuleana* belonged to the "lord of the land exclusively," that is, to the chief who was awarded the *ahupua'a* or the *'ili'āina*.

It is interesting to note that a month before the Kuleana Act of 1850 was passed, the legislature passed, in July 1850, a law that permitted foreigners to own land in the Hawaiian Kingdom.

After August 1850, the Board of Commissioners to Quiet Land Titles began hearing testimony from at least two witnesses for each claimant. The witnesses had to declare that they knew the land of the claimant, could identify it, and could provide other details that were required before the claim was recognized as legitimate.

Kula lands were not permitted in *kuleana* awards. Before the *māhele*, the *maka'āinana* could grow dry-garden crops or pasture a few cattle or horses on the *kula* lands of the *ahupua'a*. After the *māhele* they no longer had a right to cultivate on the *kula* lands, nor did they have any right to pasture their livestock on the *kula* lands.

While land was being converted into a commodity for the chiefs and foreigners, the *maka'āinana* were prevented from receiving land on which they could cultivate cash crops or pasture their herds. These activities were reserved for the chiefs and foreigners.

If the *konohiki* of the *ahupua'a* stated to the Board of Commissioners that the claimant had not been given permission to farm the land, the claim was not awarded. A claimant had to have permission of the landlord of the *ahupua'a*, according to the law.

It was customary for a farmer to cultivate a portion of his taro land output to give to the *konohiki*. The garden from which the *konohiki*'s share was harvested was called *ko'ele*. At the time the surveyor measured the claimant's land, previous to the award, the *ko'ele* garden was often excluded from the land surveyed, and of course, from the award. Moreover, each claimant had to pay for the survey of his land before receiving his award. The chiefs' lands were awarded without surveys.

Because so many claims reflected the traditional, scattered use-rights to land, Commissioners and surveyors discouraged claims for multiple garden-land parcels and encouraged *kuleana* claimants to consolidate their garden lands into one piece. This increased the value of the *konohiki*'s land. The *ahupua'a* with many parcels of *kuleana* lands would not bring as big a price when sold, as one with only a few *kuleana* parcels.

When the last *kuleana* had been awarded and the acreage was added up, the *maka'āinana* got less than 1 percent of the land in the islands. Only about 25 percent of the 1850 population of Hawaiian adult males were awarded lands.

Under the assumption that each of the adult males would be married to an adult woman and would feed his wife and children from the produce of his *kuleana*, we could easily arrive at the conclusion that between 70 percent and 75 percent of the Hawaiian *maka'āinana* could no longer feed themselves, because they were rendered landless at the time when the change was made from traditional Hawaiian land-use rights to private property rights. These laws abolished the traditional use-rights in the land, and the great majority of the Hawaiian people received nothing in return.

Literature Cited:

Kuykendall, Ralph S. The Hawaiian Kingdom, 1778-1854. (Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press), 1938.

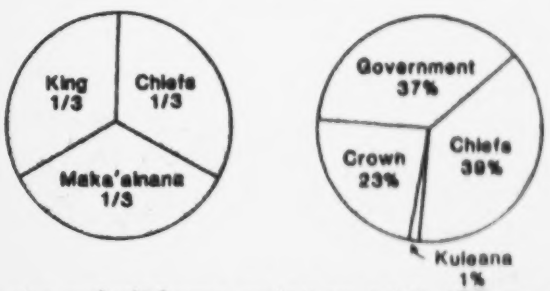
"Principles Adopted by the Board of Commissioners to Quiet Land Titles in Their Adjudication of Claims Presented to Them," Indices of Awards Made by the Board of Commissioners to Quiet Land Titles in the Hawaiiian Islands. (Honolulu, Territory of Hawai'i: Star Bulletin Press), 1929, pp. 1-12.

William Little Lee Letter to Kamehameha III, William Little Lee Letter to C. B. Andrews, and William Little Lee Letter to Coan, Paris, Thurston and Lyons. Mission Children's Society Library, non-missionary letters collection, Honolulu, Hawai'i, 1847-1848.

Robert C. Wyllie Letter to Gerrit P. Judd (No. 10), Nov. 19, 1849, Report of Secretary of War, 1855, Appendix pp. 7-8. Copy in Hawai'i State Archives.

Questions

1. Below are two graphs, one showing how the land was to be divided--according to the early statement of principles of the Board of Commissioners--and the other the actual results of the Great Māhele. Which is which?



2. Why do you think the *maka'āinana* ended up with the amount of land that they did?

3. What is the point of view of the author of this reading?

The following two selections were written in consultation with Marion Kelly of the Bishop Museum.

Bishop Estate Lands

Bernice Pauahi Bishop, whose lands are now the Bishop Estate, inherited most of her lands from the Kamehameha chiefs and Princess Ruth, who had received their lands originally as a result of the Great Māhele. The Bishop Estate lands did not come from the Crown Lands.

The Crown Lands, after the Great Māhele

The Crown Lands were made inalienable (not to be sold) in 1864 under the Hawaiian Kingdom. This status lasted until 1893, when Queen Lili'uokalani was overthrown and the Provisional Government set up. All Crown and Government lands were then taken by the Provisional Government.

At this point the Crown Lands became alienable (could be sold). When Hawai'i became a Republic in 1894, the Crown and Government lands were turned over to it. In 1895 the government of the Republic of Hawai'i merged the Crown and Government lands, calling them Public Lands. The selling and leasing of these Public Lands continued.

In 1898 Hawai'i was annexed to the United States, at which time the Republic ceded (gave up, transferred) all Public Lands to the U.S. government. (This included the unsold portions of the former Crown and Government lands.) When Congress set up the territorial government of Hawai'i in 1900, the U.S. took control of some of these ceded lands for military and park purposes. The remaining land it turned over to the Territory of Hawai'i to manage.

When Hawai'i became a state in 1959, the U.S. federal government continued to use part of the ceded lands and turned over the rest of the ceded lands to the State to be held in trust (the holding of property for the benefit of another) for the people of Hawai'i. Money from these lands was to be used for five purposes. Section 5(f) of the Hawai'i State Admissions Act spells out these purposes:

1. For the support of the public schools and other public educational institutions.

2. For the betterment of the conditions of native Hawaiians, as defined in the Hawaiian Homes Commission Act, 1920, as amended.

3. For the development of farm and home ownership on as widespread a basis as possible.

4. For the making of public improvements.

5. For the provision of land for public use.

The ceded lands used by the federal government are to be returned to the state when the Departments of Defense and of the Interior no longer need them. Thus out of the original Crown Lands,

1. some were sold before they were made inalienable in 1864. Some were sold between 1893 and 1898, during the time of the Provisional Government and the Republic of Hawai'i.

2. some were made into homestead land. The Republic of Hawai'i, during the mid-1890s, gave away 40-acre lots on the Big Island to encourage people to grow coffee and sugar cane. During the early 1900s the Territory of Hawai'i sold some former Crown Lands as homestead lands. Much of the *ahupua'a* of Lualualei was disposed of in this way.

3. some former Crown Lands were included in lands turned over to the Hawaiian Homes Commission for Hawaiian Homestead lots. Nānākuli and Waimānalo Hawaiian Homestead lands are former Crown Lands.

4. some became land used by the U.S. Department of Defense for military purposes, and by the U.S. Department of the Interior for park purposes.

5. some became land held in trust by the State of Hawai'i.

Questions

1. Why do you think purpose #2 of Section 5(f) was included in the Hawai'i State Admissions Act?

2. What is the irony involved concerning the Crown Lands? To help you answer this question, read the selection, "The Māhele," found in this book.

The Hawaiian Homes Commission

The Hawaiian Homes Commission, which formulates policy and exercises control over the Department of Hawaiian Home Lands, was established by the U.S. Congress in the Hawaiian Homes Commission Act of 1920 for the "rehabilitation" of those Hawaiians with 50 percent or more Hawaiian blood. Historically, the main function of the Department has been leasing lands for residential or agricultural and ranching purposes. Today, it also leases lands for commercial and industrial uses and has recently initiated a commercial loan and business development program.

Hawaiian Homes Commission members are appointed by the Governor for four-year terms. The Commission establishes broad operating policies for the Department of Hawaiian Home Lands. The commission chairman serves as director for the Department of Hawaiian Home Lands.

Number of Homestead Leases by Island: 1980

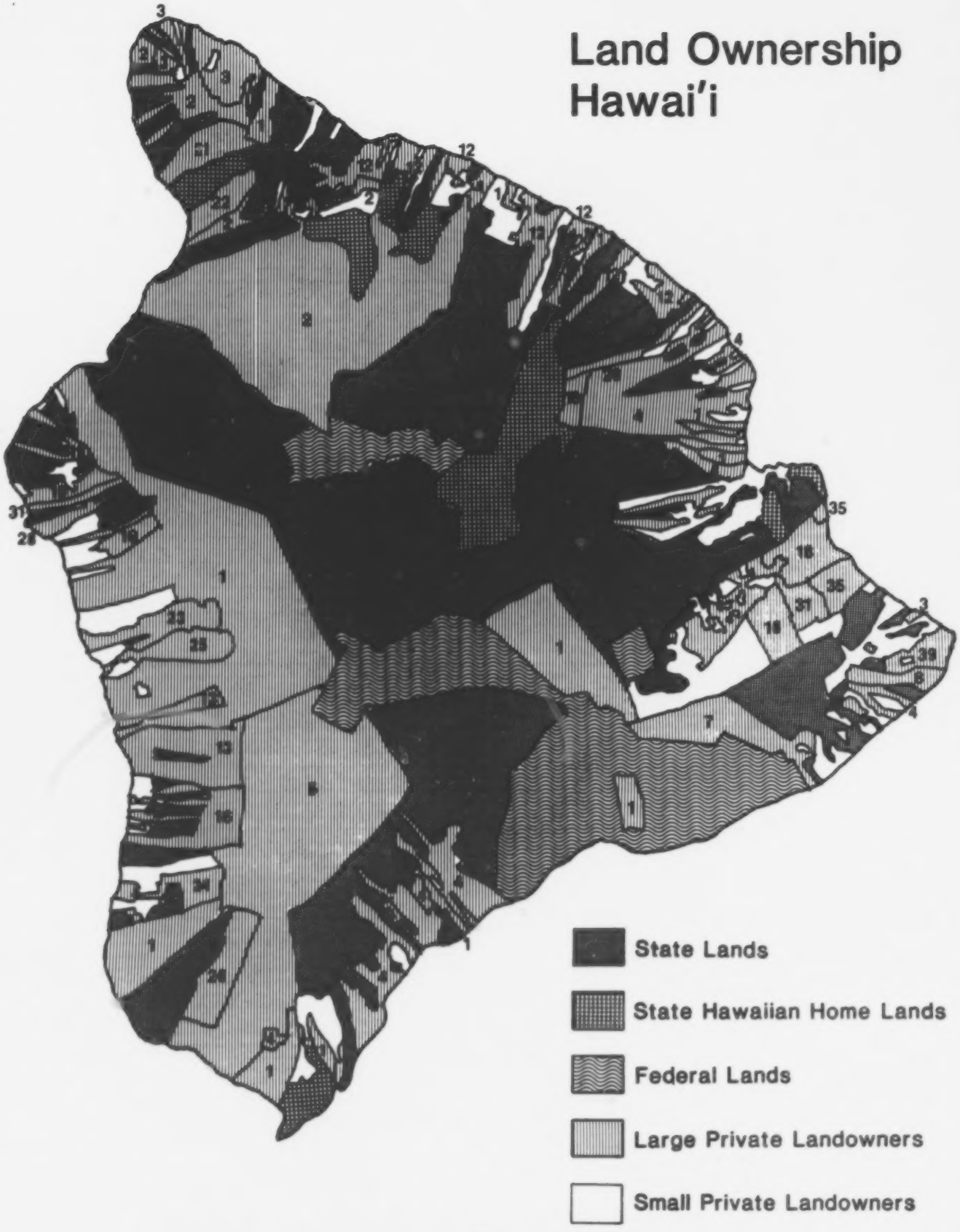
Island	Residential	Farm		Ranch		Total Awards	Total Acreage
	Residence Only	Farm with Residence	Farm Only	Ranch with Residence	Ranch Only		
Hawai'i							
Kawaihae	7					7	
Keaukaha	323					323	
Pana'ewa Waiākea	142	5	56			203	
Waimea	107		27	15	44	193	
SUBTOTAL	579	5	83	15	44	726	110,575
Maui							
Paukūkalo	89					89	
SUBTOTAL	89					89	29,005
Moloka'i							
Ho'olehua	40	176	26		5	247	
Kalama'ula	5	42	12		1	60	
Kapa'akea	44					44	
Oneali'i	27					27	
Kamiloloa	0			2		2	
SUBTOTAL	116	218	38	2	6	380	26,210
Kaua'i							
Anahola	137		1			138	
Kehaha (Pu'u'ōpae)	50				2	52	
SUBTOTAL	187		1		2	190	18,689
O'ahu							
Lualualei	0	1	1			2	
Nānākuli	660					660	
Papakōlea	320					320	
Wai'anae	153					153	
Waimānalo	514					514	
SUBTOTAL	1,647	1	1			1,649	5,245
STATEWIDE TOTAL	2,618	224	123	17	52	3,034	189,724

Land Ownership: 1977

Owners	Acreage
State of Hawai'i[1]	1,590,532
Federal Government	402,084
Major Private Landowners	
1 Bernice P. Bishop Estate	369,462
2 Richard S. Smart (Parker Ranch)	185,940
3 Castle and Cooke, Inc.	153,912
4 C. Brewer and Co., Ltd.	145,147
5 Samuel M. Damon Estate	143,842
6 Alexander and Baldwin, Inc.	126,790
7 James Campbell Estate	81,549
8 Amfac, Inc.	81,417
9 Molokai Ranch, Ltd.	73,975
10 Gay and Robinson	55,800
11 Niihau Ranch	46,065
12 Theo H. Davies and Co., Ltd.	43,490
13 McCandless Heirs	37,622
14 Haleakala Ranch Co.	33,041
15 Grove Farm Co, Inc.	22,616
16 Yee Hop, Ltd.	21,830
17 Ulupala Kua Ranch, Inc.	21,557
18 W. H. Shipman, Ltd.	20,599
19 Thelma K. Stillman Trust (Huehue Ranch)	15,438
20 Puu-O-Hoku Ranch (G. W. Murphy)	14,262
21 Kahua Ranch, Ltd.	14,013
22 Queen's Hospital	13,065
23 W. H. Greenwell, Ltd.	12,149
24 Dillingham Investment Corp.	11,471
25 Kealakekua Ranch (S. Greenwell)	11,136
26 Hawaiian Ocean View Estate	10,642
27 Kaupo Ranch, Ltd.	10,037
28 Queen Liliuokalani Trust	9,794
29 Kaonoulu Ranch Co., Ltd.	8,813
30 Estate of H. K. L. Castle (Kaneohe Ranch)	8,606
31 Frank R. Greenwell (Palani Ranch)	6,917
32 Zion Securities Corp.	6,514
33 Francis H. Ii Brown, *et al.*	6,164
34 Eric A. and August F. Knudsen Trust	5,879
35 Hawaiian Paradise Park Corp.	5,503
36 Bernice P. Bishop Museum	5,257
37 Austin Heirs	5,255
38 Capital Investment Co., Ltd.	5,182
39 Kapoho Land & Development Co., Ltd.	5,174
Small Private Landowners (less that 5,000 acres)	257,059

1. Includes Hawaiian Home Lands.

Note: The numbers next to the major private landowners correspond to the following five Land Ownership maps.


Land Ownership
Hawai'i
State Lands
State Hawaiian Home Lands
Federal Lands
Large Private Landowners
Small Private Landowners

State Lands

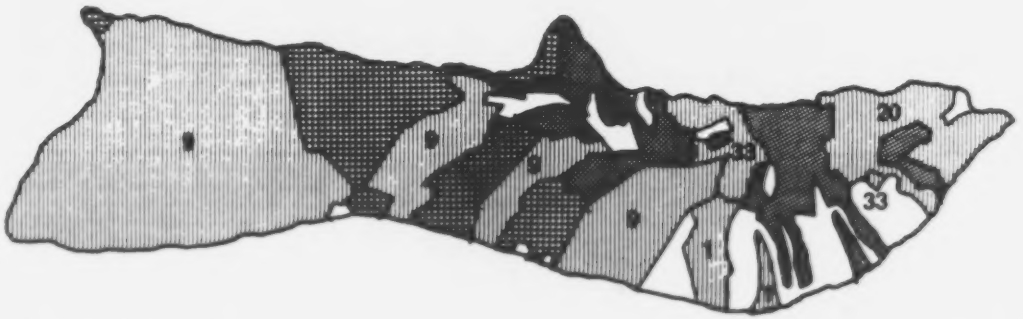
State
Hawaiian Home Lands

Federal Lands

Large Private
Landowners

Small Private
Landowners

Land Ownership
Maui and Kaho'olawe



State Lands

State Hawaiian Home Lands

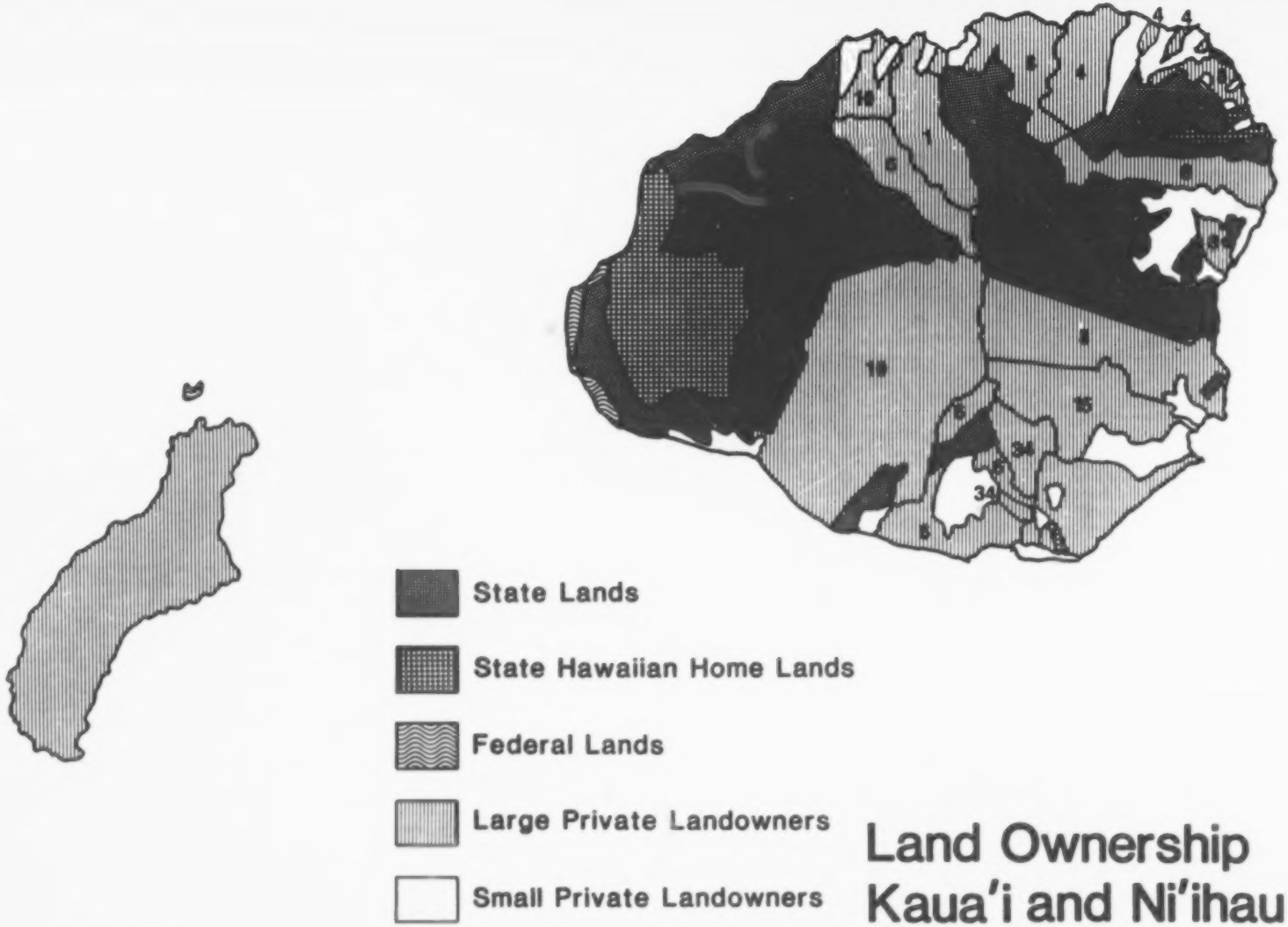
Federal Lands

Large Private Landowners

Small Private Landowners

Land Ownership
Moloka'i and Lāna'i

Land Ownership
O'ahu


State Lands
State Hawaiian Home Lands
Federal Lands
Large Private Landowners
Small Private Landowners
Land Ownership
Kaua'i and Ni'ihau

Land Ownership: 1982

Owner	Acreage	% of Hawai'i's Land
Total in State	4,128,000	100.0%
State Government (includes State Hawaiian Home Lands)	1,436,544	34.8%
Federal Government (includes military and park lands; excludes leased and ceded lands used by the military)	301,344	7.3%
Large Private Landowners (5,000 acres and over)	2,130,048	51.6%
Small Private Landowners (under 5,000 acres)	260,064	6.3%

Note: Considerable caution is necessary in comparing statistics from different sources on land use, ownership, or tenure. Variations in definitions and survey dates seriously affect comparability in many instances, even where terminology is relatively unambiguous and misinterpretation seems unlikely. An example of such difficulties is the wide range in estimates of federal land, with federal totals ranging from 297,000 acres to 661,000. Statistics on military land use are likewise confusing, going as high as 175,000 acres and as low as 56,000.

Activity

Make a pie graph showing ownership of land in Hawai'i.

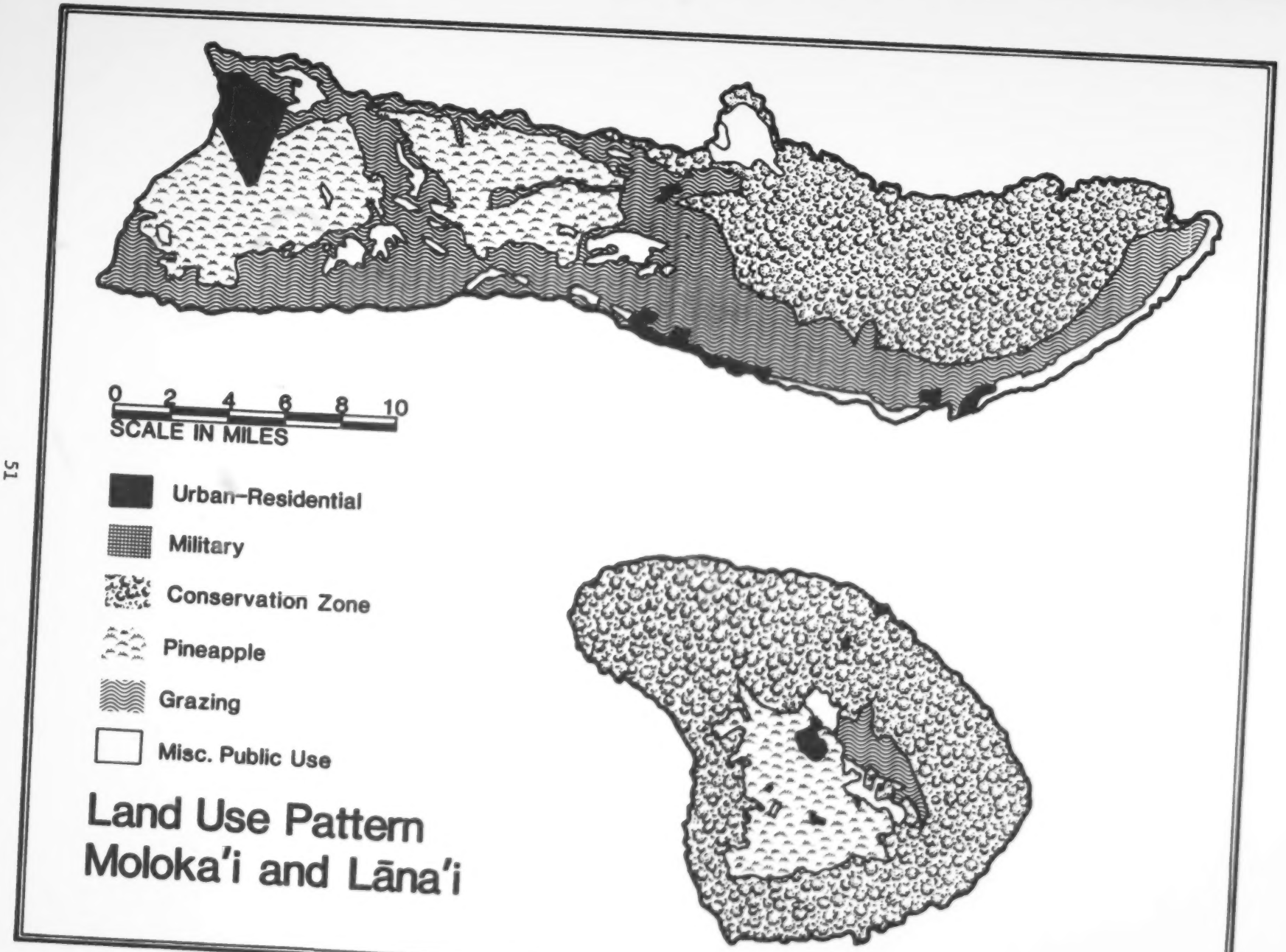
Questions

See the five Land Ownership maps.

1. What kinds of land does the federal government own? Do you recognize the specific areas?

2. Which islands have Hawaiian Home Lands?

3. What islands are largely privately owned?


0 2 4 6 8 10
SCALE IN MILES
Urban-Residential
Military
Conservation Zone
Pineapple
Grazing
Misc. Public Use
Land Use Pattern
Moloka'i and Lāna'i

Military Land Use in Hawai'i

The U.S. Armed Forces uses about seven percent of the land in the state. Most of this land is on O'ahu, where about 25 percent of its land is used by the military. Some of the land is owned by the federal government, but as you can see in the chart below most of it is ceded and leased (rented) land.

Ceded lands are owned by the state, and are being used by the military as a result of the U.S. Organic Act of 1900, which made Hawai'i a territory. These lands will be returned to the state when the U.S. Department of Defense no longer needs them.

Looking at the chart below, answer these questions:

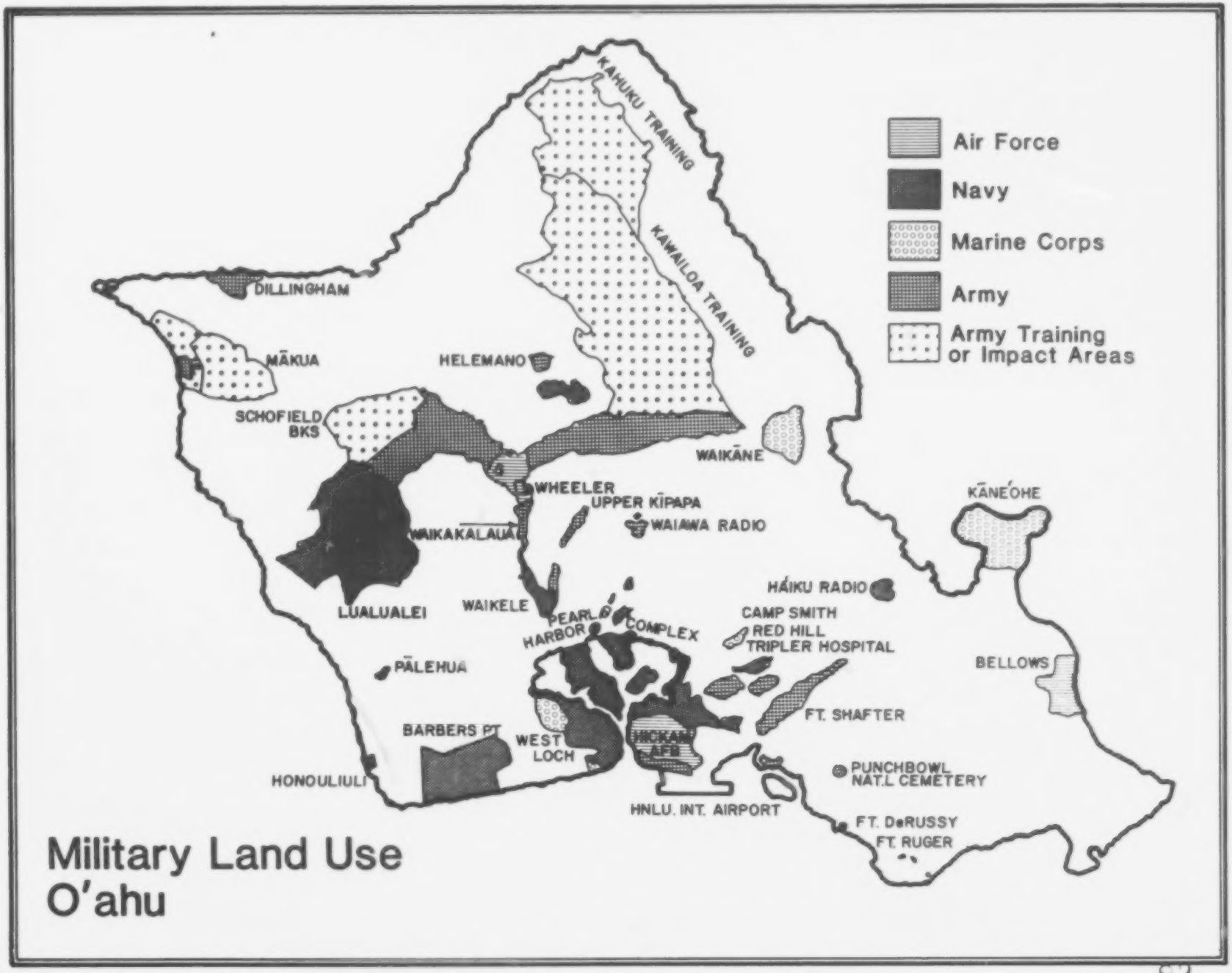
1. How many acres used by the military are owned by the federal government? Are held as ceded land? Are leased?

2. What percentage of the total land used by the military is owned by the federal government? Is held as ceded land? Is leased?

3. What branch of the military uses the most land?

Military Landholdings in Acres

	FEE	CEDED	LEASE	Total
Army	3.4	103.2	69.1	175.7
Navy	15.4	36.9	2.8	55.1
Air Force	3.0	2.2	0.7	5.9
Marine Corps	2.8	1.4	44.1	48.3
Total	24.6	143.7	116.7	



Military Land Use
O'ahu

Attitudes Toward the Land

Activity

This activity introduces you to land use issues and values. Choose the one statement that best represents your views and attitudes toward the ownership and use of land. Even if you don't completely agree with any one statement, choose the one that comes closest to your views and attitudes.

1. Land is just like any other kind of property. The landowner has the right to use it however he or she wishes, and the right to sell it for the highest price.

OR

2. Land is a special kind of property because ownership and use of land can affect others. The community can place certain restrictions on the use of land, but the owner has the right to sell it for the highest price.

OR

3. Land is a resource belonging to all the people. The community has the right to control all aspects of its use and sale. The community has the right to take land for public purposes.

Write a short paragraph explaining the reasons for your choice. Do you believe your choice reflects the way in which land is actually used and valued today? If no, explain the difference between your choice and the existing system.

The Best Use of Land

Activity

There are many different uses of land. Sometimes the community must decide which use is more important, or has the highest priority, or is the best use of a particular parcel of land.

1. Below is a list of geographical locations of land parcels with a set of possible land uses. Under each location, using your own point of view and values, rank what you think the priorities should be. (This is not necessarily the way you think it operates in the real world but the way you would like to see it operate.)

   POSSIBLE LAND USES

   a. hotel
   b. farm
   c. private
   d. condominium
   e. office building
   f. public park
   g. electrical power plant
   h. conservation: very limited recreational use

   LOCATIONS

   Land along the shoreline

   Priority use #1 _____ #5 _____
   #2 _____ #6 _____
   #3 _____ #7 _____
   #4 _____ #8 _____

   Land next to a stream

   Priority use #1 _____ #5 _____
   #2 _____ #6 _____
   #3 _____ #7 _____
   #4 _____ #8 _____

   Land back in a valley
   Land near the airport
   Land next to the State Capitol building
   Land next to a school
   Land next to a marsh
   Land covered by lava

2. Break into small groups. Collectively decide again your top three choices for each geographical area. List two or three reasons for your decisions under each location. These reasons should represent your criteria for judging appropriate land uses under each.

3. Each student should make an individual list of some of the different opinions shared in their group. Try to identify some of the reasons for your conflicts. Some reasons might include different degrees of knowledge, different goals, and different values.

Land Use Conflicts

Activity

Many kinds of land use activities are in conflict. The same parcel of land could be used for more than one activity or use. For each use listed in Column A, choose a use from Column B that would be the most likely to conflict with it.

COLUMN A	COLUMN B
_____ 1. sugar plantations	a. major new highways
_____ 2. tourist hotels	b. local recreation facilities
_____ 3. residential neighborhoods	c. large single-family housing developments
_____ 4. sparsely populated areas	d. an airport

Write a short paragraph giving the reason for each of your choices.

Land Use Control

Activity

This activity introduces you to some land use issues. One major question is WHO should control the use of land. We have many kinds of government agencies. We have small neighborhood boards or community organizations, county governments which represent the citizens of a particular county, the state government which represents the entire state, and the U.S. federal government.

See if you can match the appropriate controlling body with the particular land use issue. In other words, which level of government do you think has the most expertise, the best perspective, and the most local knowledge to decide about a particular use? You may also choose to leave control completely with the landowner.

CONTROLLING BODY

1. landowner
2. neighborhood group
3. county government
4. state government
5. federal government

LAND USE ISSUE

_____ a. the right to use Midway Island as a fishing base

_____ b. development of a large beach park

_____ c. widening of a particular street

_____ d. the height of new buildings in a particular area

_____ e. the property taxes on land

_____ f. the site of a new airport

_____ g. an Air Force base

_____ h. the route of a new highway

_____ i. the site of a power plant

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The "Greenbelt Law" of 1961

In 1961 the Hawai'i State Legislature passed the so-called Greenbelt Law, setting up a Land Use Commission with the responsibility of classifying all lands into four groups.

1. Skim over "Chapter 205, Land Use Commission." This is taken from the Hawai'i Revised Statutes.

2. Under Section 205-2, what are the four land use districts?

3. Under Section 205-2 (1), can you give some recent examples of urban growth?

4. Under Section 205-2 (3), what do you think is meant by "high capacity for intensive cultivation"? Can you give some examples?

5. Under Section 205-2 (4), why do you think forest and water reserve zones are included in conservation districts? Why might this be especially important for an island state?

6. Read the rest of Section 205-2, which provides a general description of each land use district. Then match the various land uses with the appropriate districts below:

Land Uses	District
1. a house on a half-acre of land	a. Urban
2. hotel	
3. large farm	b. Rural
4. windmill	
5. food-processing facility	c. Agricultural
6. beach park	
7. amusement park	d. Conservation
8. historic site	
9. fishpond	
10. pier	

CHAPTER 205
LAND USE COMMISSION

[PART I. GENERALLY]

§205-2 Districting and classification of lands. There shall be four major land use districts in which all lands in the State shall be placed: urban, rural, agricultural, and conservation. The land use commission shall group contiguous land areas suitable for inclusion in one of these four major districts. The commission shall set standards for determining the boundaries of each district, provided that:

(1) In the establishment of boundaries of urban districts those lands that are now in urban use and a sufficient reserve area for foreseeable urban growth shall be included;

(2) In the establishment of boundaries for rural districts, areas of land composed primarily of small farms mixed with very low density residential lots, which may be shown by a minimum density of not more than one house per one-half acre and a minimum lot size of not less than one-half acre shall be included, except as herein provided;

(3) In the establishment of the boundaries of agricultural districts the greatest possible protection shall be given to those lands with a high capacity for intensive cultivation; and

(4) In the establishment of the boundaries of conservation districts, the "forest and water reserve zones" provided in section 183-41 are renamed "conservation districts" and, effective as of July 11, 1961, the boundaries of the forest and water reserve zones theretofore established pursuant to section 183-41, shall constitute the boundaries of the conservation districts; provided that thereafter the power to determine the boundaries of the conservation districts shall be in the commission.

In establishing the boundaries of the districts in each county, the commission shall give consideration to the master plan or general plan of the county.

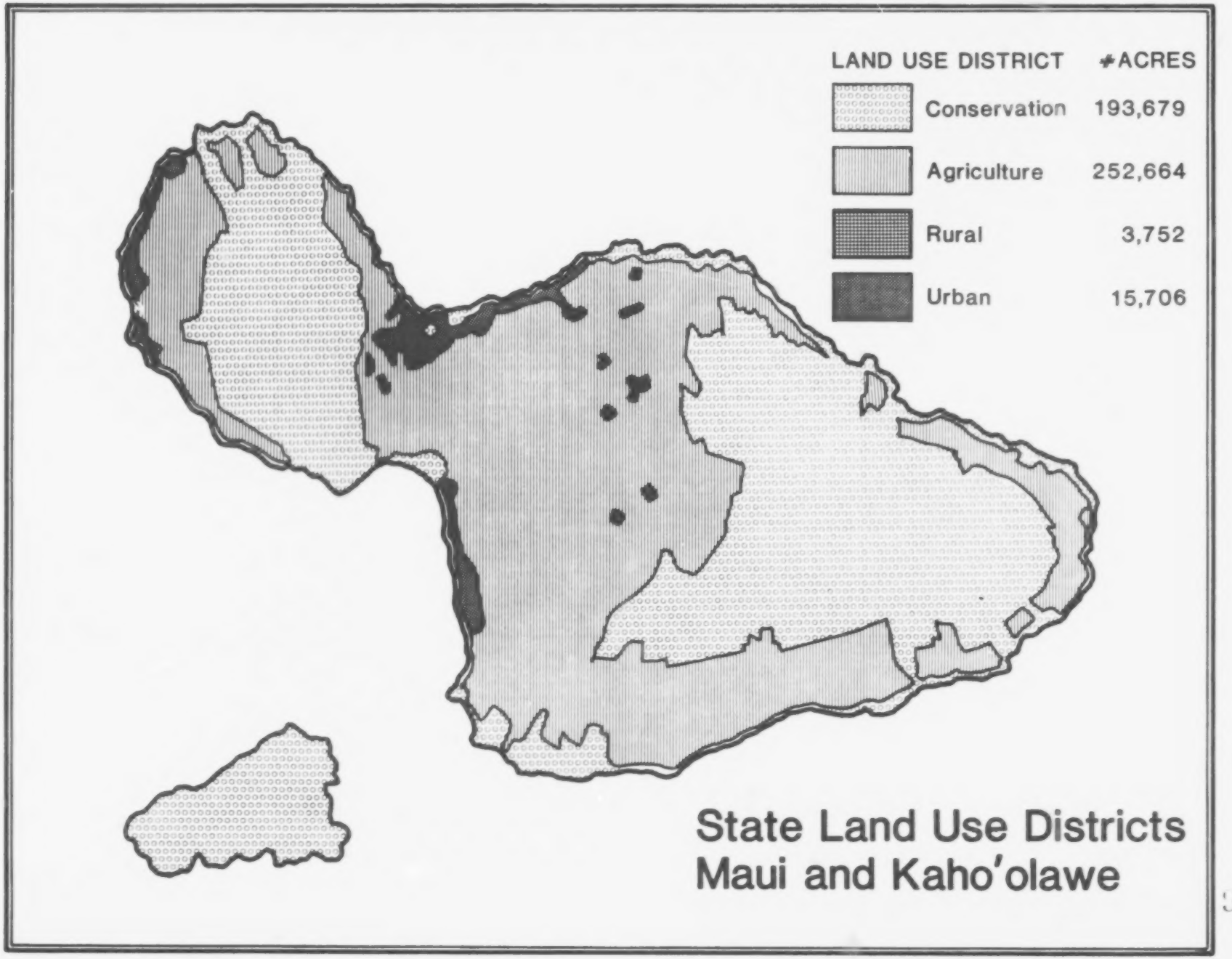
Urban districts shall include activities or uses as provided by ordinances or regulations of the county within which the urban district is situated.

Rural districts shall include activities or uses as characterized by low density residential lots of not more than one dwelling house per one-half acre in areas where "city-like" concentration of people, structures, streets, and urban level of services are absent, and where small farms are intermixed with the low density residential lots except that within a subdivision, as defined in section 484-1, the commission for good cause may allow one lot of less than one-half acre, but not less than 18,500 square feet, or an equivalent residential density, within a rural subdivision and permit the construction of one dwelling on such lot, provided that all other dwellings in the subdivision shall have a minimum lot size of one-half acre or 21,780 square feet. Such petition for variance may be processed under the Special Permit Procedure. These districts may include contiguous areas which are not suited to low density residential lots or small farms by reason of topography, soils, and other related characteristics.

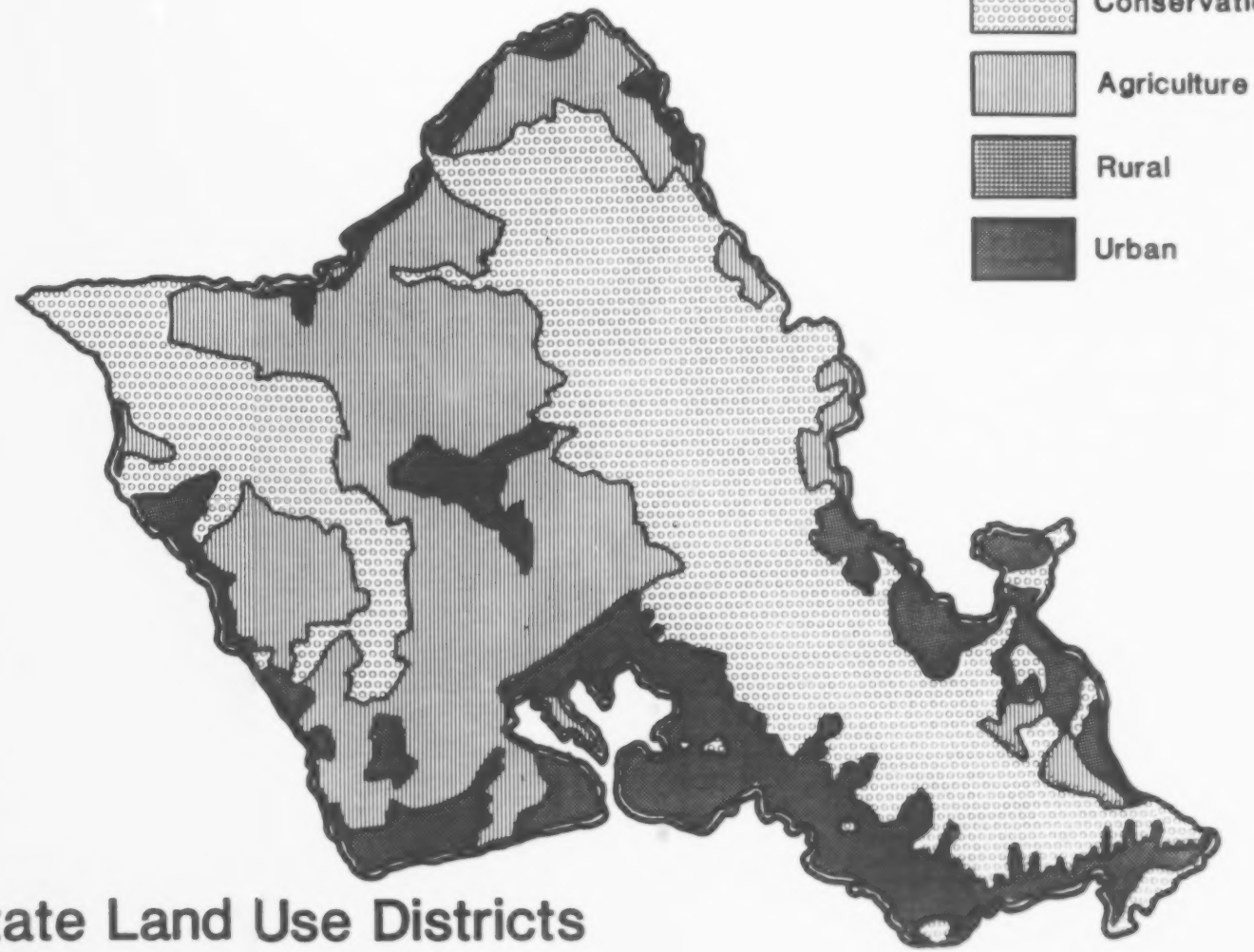
Agricultural districts shall include activities or uses as characterized by the cultivation of crops, orchards, forage, and forestry; farming activities or uses related to animal husbandry, aquaculture, game and fish propagation; aquaculture, which means the production of aquatic plant and animal life for food and fiber within ponds and other bodies of water; wind generated energy production for public, private and commercial use; services and uses accessory to the above activities including but not limited to living quarters or dwellings, mills, storage facilities, processing facilities, and roadside stands for the sale of products grown on the premises; wind machines and wind farms; agricultural parks; and open area recreational facilities.

These districts may include areas which are not used for, or which are not suited to, agricultural and ancillary activities by reason of topography, soils, and other related characteristics.

Conservation districts shall include areas necessary for protecting watersheds and water sources; preserving scenic and historic areas; providing park lands, wilderness, and beach reserves; conserving endemic plants, fish, and wildlife; preventing floods and soil erosion; forestry; open space areas whose existing openness, natural condition, or present state of use, if retained, would enhance the present or potential value of abutting or surrounding communities, or would maintain or enhance the conservation of natural or scenic resources; areas of value for recreational purposes; other related activities; and other permitted uses not detrimental to a multiple use conservation concept.



State Land Use Districts
Maui and Kaho'olawe



State Land Use Districts
O'ahu

Costal Zone Management

Background

The Hawaii Coastal Zone Management (CZM) Program is intended to meet both national and State goals for the beneficial use, protection and development of Hawaii's coastal resources. It originated with Federal legislation — the National Coastal Zone Management Act of 1972 (P.L.92-583) — enacted in response to intense pressures upon the coastal areas of the United States. Recognizing that increased demands for the use of finite and valuable coastal resources often resulted in environmental degradation and loss of such resources, Congress established the following major policies:

- To preserve and develop the resources of the nation's coastal zone,
- To encourage the several states to effectively exercise their responsibilities in the coastal zone through management programs,
- To secure the cooperation and participation of Federal agencies whose programs affect the coastal zone, with agencies at other levels of government,
- To encourage the participation of all government agencies and the public in the development of the CZM program.

Hawaii's involvement in the CZM program also is a logical outgrowth of the State's historic identification with the sea. To Hawaii residents, the shoreline area has always been very special. In addition to encompassing maritime commercial and non-commercial activities, this zone of interaction between land activities and water-use activities has been a place for gathering food, for recreation, and for contemplation and inspiration.

A combination of factors over the past several years has exerted new pressures on Hawaii's coastal resources. The availability of these resources has dwindled among competing uses as a result of population growth, urban expansion, and proportionate increases in affluence and leisure time. In addition, substantial deterioration of the coastal environment has also become apparent due to increased demand for the use of the State's coastal land and water resources.

In response to these pressures and to the opportunity provided by the National CZM Act, the 1973 State Legislature enacted Act 164 (now Chapter 205A, Hawaii Revised Statutes). It directed the State Department of Planning and Economic Development (DPED) to prepare Hawaii's CZM Program. Since 1974, DPED has utilized both State and Federal funding for program development and implementation activities.

Questions

1. Give two examples of each of the following:

   a. recreational resources
   b. historic resources
   c. scenic and open space resources
   d. coastal ecosystems
   e. economic uses
   f. coastal hazards
   g. managing development

2. Which of these areas do you feel are most important for government to worry about? Why do you feel this way?

3. Read through the Coastal Zone Law. Are there any words you do not understand? Make a list of any words or terms which are not clear to you.

4. Look at the policies under the recreational objective:

   "Provide adequate, accessible and diverse recreational opportunities in the coastal zone management area . . ."

   Can you think of an example to illustrate each policy?

5. In the recreational objective, the lawmakers used the words "adequate," "accessible," and "diverse." Why do you think they included all three words? In terms of recreation, what do you think each word means?

6. Which of the policies for recreation do you think would definitely require spending public money?

7. Look at the section under "Managing Development." Give a specific example of each of the three policies. Why do you think lawmakers included these policies? What problems do they imply?

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§205A-2 Coastal zone management program; objectives and policies.
(a) The objectives and policies in this section shall apply to both parts I and II of this chapter.

(b) Objectives.

(1) Recreational resources;

(A) Provide coastal recreational opportunities accessible to the public.

(2) Historic resources;

(A) Protect, preserve, and, where desirable, restore those natural and man-made historic and pre-historic resources in the coastal zone management area that are significant in Hawaiian and American history and culture.

(3) Scenic and open space resources;

(A) Protect, preserve, and, where desirable, restore or improve the quality of coastal scenic and open space resources.

(4) Coastal ecosystems;

(A) Protect valuable coastal ecosystems from disruption and minimize adverse impacts on all coastal ecosystems.

(5) Economic uses;

(A) Provide public or private facilities and improvements important to the State's economy in suitable locations.

(6) Coastal hazards;

(A) Reduce hazard to life and property from tsunami, storm waves, stream flooding, erosion, and subsidence.

(7) Managing development;

(A) Improve the development review process, communication, and public participation in the management of coastal resources and hazards.

(c) Policies.

(1) Recreational resources;

(A) Improve coordination and funding of coastal recreation planning and management; and

(B) Provide adequate, accessible, and diverse recreational opportunities in the coastal zone management area by:

(i) Protecting coastal resources uniquely suited for recreational activities that cannot be provided in other areas;

(ii) Requiring replacement of coastal resources having significant recreational value, including but not limited to surfing sites and sandy beaches, when such resources will be unavoidably damaged by development; or requiring reasonable monetary compensation to the State for recreation when replacement is not feasible or desirable;

(iii) Providing and managing adequate public access, consistent with conservation of natural resources, to and along shorelines with recreational value;

(iv) Providing an adequate supply of shoreline parks and other recreational facilities suitable for public recreation;

(v) Encouraging expanded public recreational use of county, State, and federally owned or controlled shoreline lands and waters having recreational value;

(vi) Adopting water quality standards and regulating point and non-point sources of pollution to protect and where feasible, restore the recreational value of coastal waters;

(vii) Developing new shoreline recreational opportunities, where appropriate, such as artificial lagoons, artificial beaches, artificial reefs for surfing and fishing; and

(viii) Encouraging reasonable dedication of shoreline areas with recreational value for public use as part of discretionary approvals or permits by the land use commission, board of land and natural resources, county planning commissions; and crediting such dedication against the requirements of section 46-6.

(2) Historic resources;

(A) Identify and analyze significant archaeological resources;

(B) Maximize information retention through preservation of remains and artifacts or salvage operations; and

(C) Support State goals for protection, restoration, interpretation, and display of historic resources.

(3) Scenic and open space resources;

(A) Identify valued scenic resources in the coastal zone management area;

(B) Insure that new developments are compatible with their visual environment by designing and locating such developments to minimize the alteration of natural landforms and existing public views to and along the shoreline;

(C) Preserve, maintain, and, where desirable, improve and restore shoreline open space and scenic resources; and

(D) Encourage those developments which are not coastal dependent to locate in inland areas.

(4) Coastal ecosystems;

(A) Improve the technical basis for natural resource management;

(B) Preserve valuable coastal ecosystems of significant biological or economic importance;

(C) Minimize disruption or degradation of coastal water ecosystems by effective regulation of stream diversions, channelization, and similar land and water uses, recognizing competing water needs; and

(D) Promote water quantity and quality planning and management practices which reflect the tolerance of fresh water and marine ecosystems and prohibit land and water uses which violate State water quality standards.

(5) Economic uses;

(A) Concentrate in appropriate areas the location of coastal dependent development necessary to the State's economy;

(B) Insure that coastal dependent development such as harbors and ports, visitor industry facilities, and energy generating facilities are located, designed, and constructed to minimize adverse social, visual, and environmental impacts in the coastal zone management area; and

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(C) Direct the location and expansion of coastal dependent developments to areas presently designated and used for such developments and permit reasonable long-term growth at such areas, and permit coastal dependent development outside of presently designated areas when:

(i) Utilization of presently designated locations is not feasible;

(ii) Adverse environmental effects are minimized; and

(iii) Important to the State's economy.

(6) Coastal hazards;

(A) Develop and communicate adequate information on storm wave, tsunami, flood, erosion, and subsidence hazard;

(B) Control development in areas subject to storm wave, tsunami, flood, erosion, and subsidence hazard;

(C) Ensure that developments comply with requirements of the Federal Flood Insurance Program; and

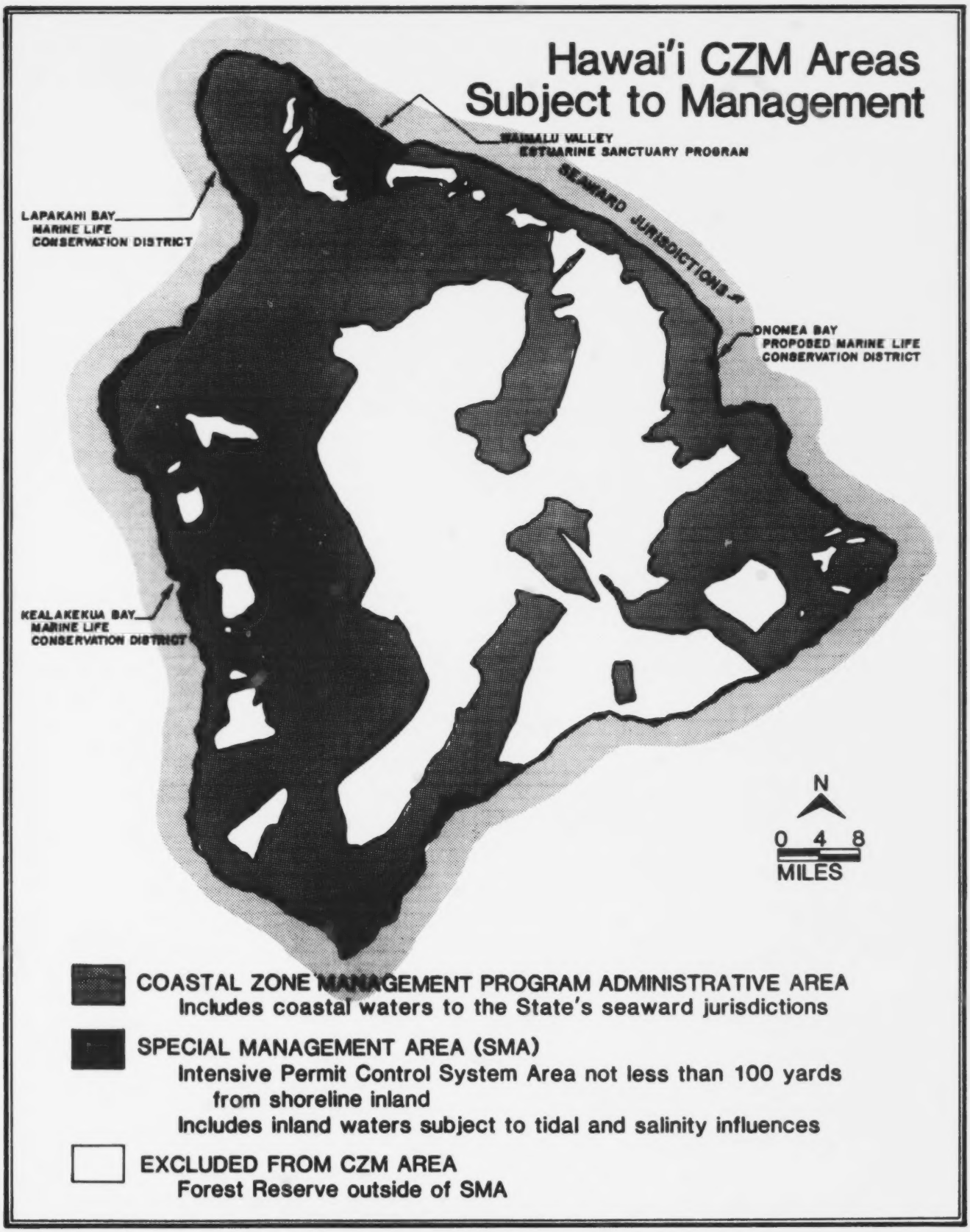
(D) Prevent coastal flooding from inland projects.

(7) Managing development;

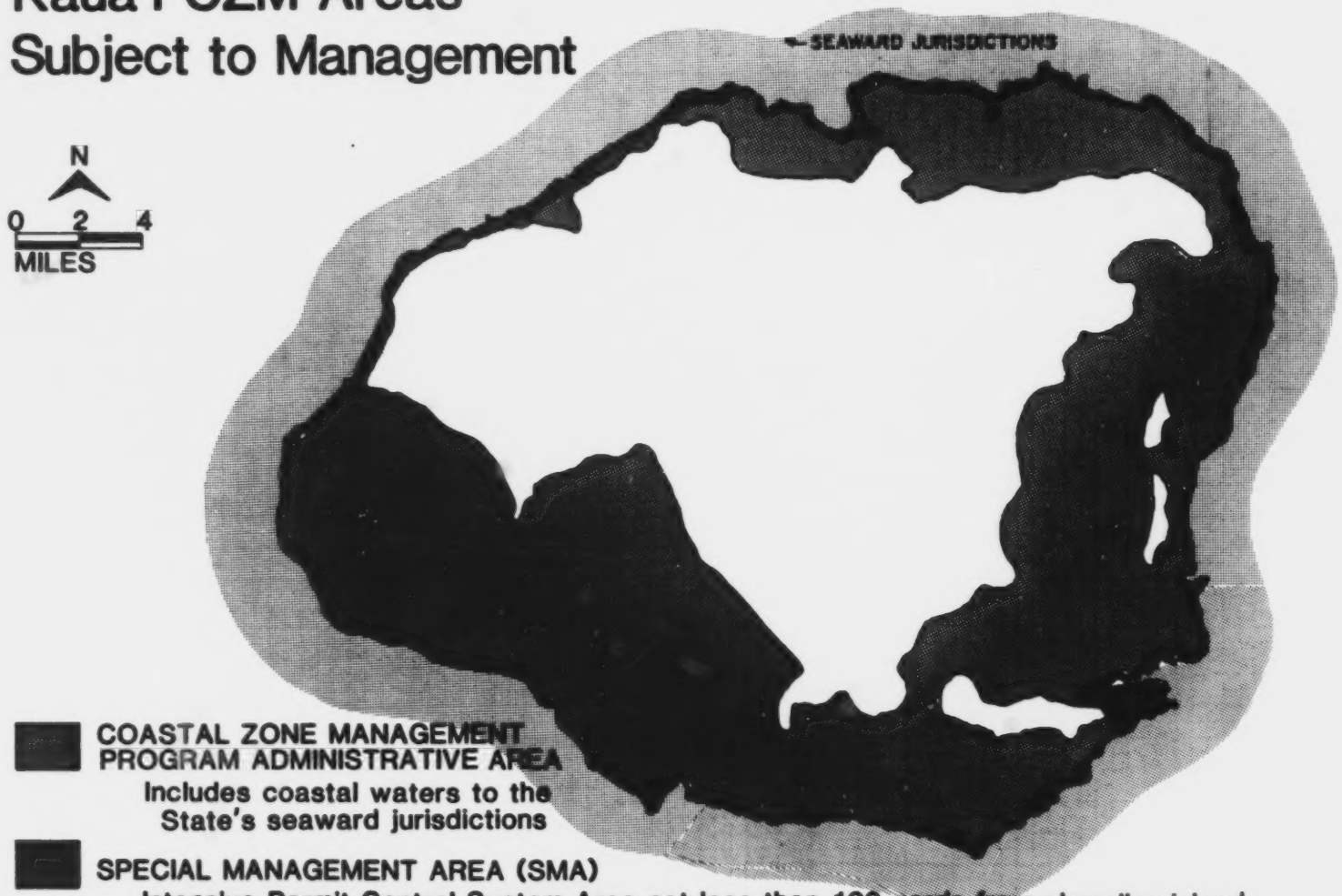
(A) Effectively utilize and implement existing law to the maximum extent possible in managing present and future coastal zone development;

(B) Facilitate timely processing of application for development permits and resolve overlapping or conflicting permit requirements; and

(C) Communicate the potential short and long-term impacts of proposed significant coastal developments early in their life-cycle and in terms understandable to the general public to facilitate public participation in the planning and review process. [L 1977, c 188, pt of §3]


Hawai'i CZM Areas
Subject to Management
WAIMALU VALLEY
ESTUARINE SANCTUARY PROGRAM
SEAWARD JURISDICTIONS
LAPAKAHI BAY
MARINE LIFE
CONSERVATION DISTRICT
HONOMEA BAY
PROPOSED MARINE LIFE
CONSERVATION DISTRICT
KEALAKEKUA BAY
MARINE LIFE
CONSERVATION DISTRICT
N
0 4 8
MILES
COASTAL ZONE MANAGEMENT PROGRAM ADMINISTRATIVE AREA
Includes coastal waters to the State's seaward jurisdictions
SPECIAL MANAGEMENT AREA (SMA)
Intensive Permit Control System Area not less than 100 yards
from shoreline inland
Includes inland waters subject to tidal and salinity influences
EXCLUDED FROM CZM AREA
Forest Reserve outside of SMA

Kaua'i CZM Areas Subject to Management



COASTAL ZONE MANAGEMENT PROGRAM ADMINISTRATIVE AREA
Includes coastal waters to the State's seaward jurisdictions

SPECIAL MANAGEMENT AREA (SMA)
Intensive Permit Control System Area not less than 100 yards from shoreline inland
Includes inland waters subject to tidal and salinity influences

EXCLUDED FROM CZM AREA
Forest Reserve outside of SMA

Land Use Permits

Activity

"Permits and Environmental Requirements by Project Location and Activity" is part of a book to help people who want to start an aquaculture operation in Hawai'i. Most of the permits required for aquaculture are also required for other kinds of land use.

Using the information in the reading, answer the following questions:

1. How many <u>different</u> permits are involved in all three areas?

2. Why do you think the different areas have different sets of requirements?

3. Which area (A. Inland of the SMA, B. The SMA, C. Seaward of the Shoreline) seems to be the most heavily regulated?

4. Which area seems to be the least regulated?

5. Based on the list of permits, what specific resources can you identify which the various governmental agencies want to protect and control?

6. If you owned urban-zoned land in area A (Inland of the SMA), and you wanted to build a house with its own well, what permits would be required?

7. What permits would be required if you wanted to construct an aquaculture pond in a conservation district in Area A using water from a stream, and you intended to discharge some wastewater back into the stream? Assume that you have received a federal grant to assist in the project.

8. What permits would be required if you wanted to build an aquaculture pond next to a historic site in the Special Management Area?

9. What permits would be required if you wanted to build a pier extending into the water?

10. What do you think the attitude of the aquaculture developer might be regarding the requirements?

Three Areas

Aquaculture activities in Hawaii can be categorized within three major geographical areas of government jurisdiction:

A. Activities located landward of shoreline Special Management Areas.

B. Activities located within the Special Management Areas that abut the shoreline.

C. Activities seaward of the shoreline.

Figure 2 is a diagrammatic representation of these areas. Land and waters of the State are classified in either Urban, Rural, Agricultural or Conservation districts. Regulation of land and water uses in the Special Management Areas (SMA), and in Urban, Rural and Agriculture districts is primarily a function of the respective County governments. Submerged lands, marine waters, fishponds and tidepools are included in the Conservation district, unless designated otherwise. Uses seaward of the shoreline are regulated principally by State and Federal agencies. Land and water uses in Conservation district areas located landward of the SMA's are regulated by the State Board of Land and Natural Resources.

The following sections list and briefly describe the permits and environmental review processes that are or may be applicable to aquaculture projects within each of the three major geographical areas of government jurisdiction.

A. Activities Inland of the Special Management Areas
Reference "A"

Federal Level

- **Federal Environmental Impact Statement**

  A Federal EIS is required for projects involving the use of Federal lands, funds, loan guarantees and permits; placement of dredge and fill materials into navigable waters and wetlands; projects involving disturbances to designated national historic sites, threatened or endangered species, and critical wildlife habitats.

- **U.S. Department of the Army (Corps of Engineers) Permit**

  Required for projects producing significant environmental disturbances and involving dredging, filling, or placement of structures in navigable waters, inclusive of streams, wetlands (marshes, swamps and estuaries) and coastal waters.

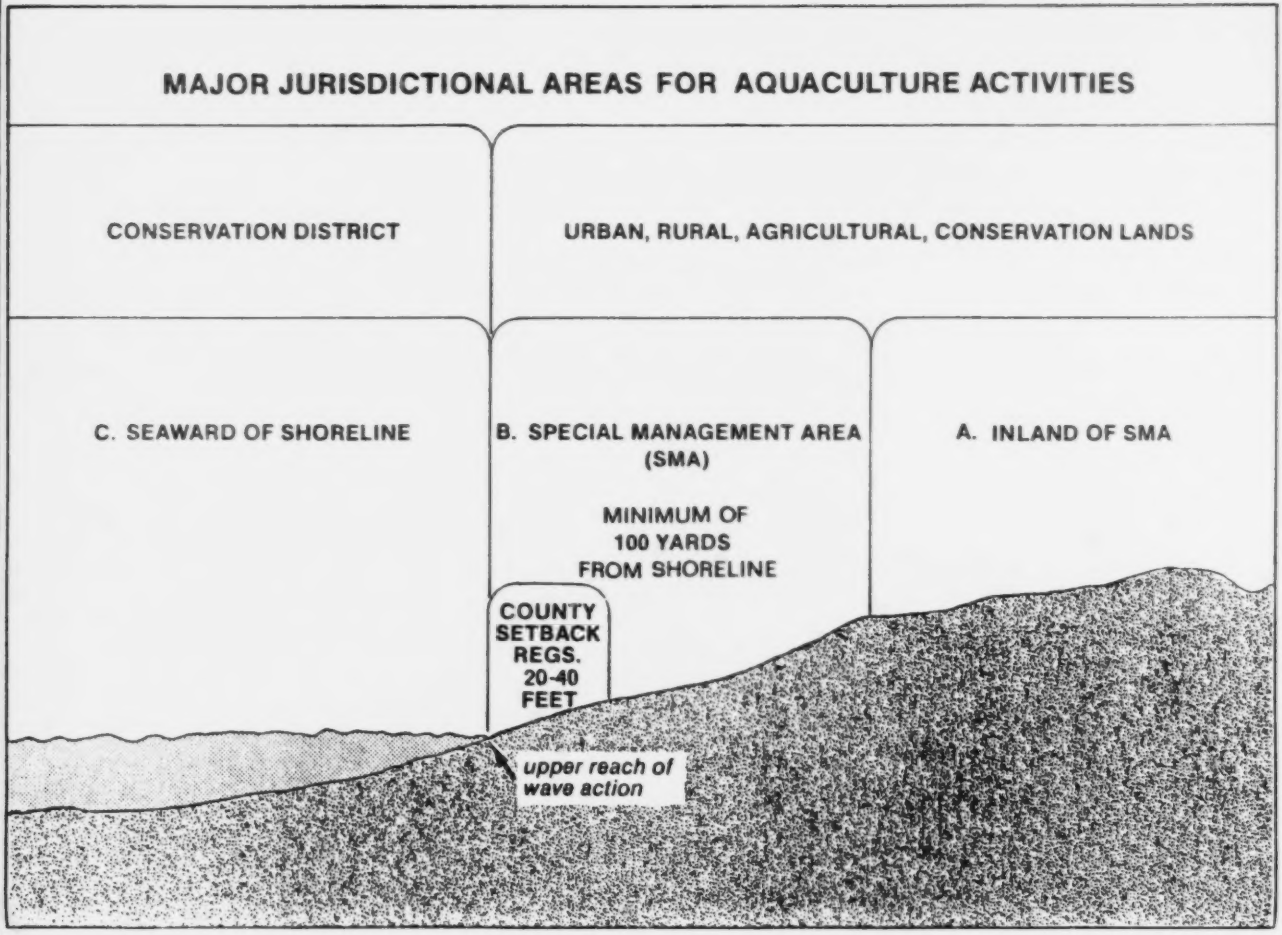
Federal-State Level

- **National Pollutant Discharge Elimination System (NPDES) Permit**

  May be required for aquaculture projects proposing to discharge treated or untreated wastewaters from defined point sources into freshwater, estuarine or coastal environments.

- **Hawaii Coastal Zone Management Consistency Review**

  Applies only to direct Federal legislation or Federal agency actions (including permits) in the defined Coastal Zone Management Area of the State.


MAJOR JURISDICTIONAL AREAS FOR AQUACULTURE ACTIVITIES
CONSERVATION DISTRICT
URBAN, RURAL, AGRICULTURAL, CONSERVATION LANDS
C. SEAWARD OF SHORELINE
B. SPECIAL MANAGEMENT AREA (SMA)
MINIMUM OF 100 YARDS FROM SHORELINE
A. INLAND OF SMA
COUNTY SETBACK REGS. 20-40 FEET
upper reach of wave action

- **Floodplain Management Review**

  Will regulate proposed developments located on designated floodplains and tsunami inundation areas and may specify flood-proofing standards for commercial developments. To be implemented by mid-1980.

State Level

- **Hawaii Environmental Impact Statement**

  Required for major projects significantly affecting environmental quality; for actions involving the use of State or County lands or funds; for proposed developments in Conservation districts (lands or waters); and projects within designated historical or archaeological sites.

- **Conservation District Use Permit**

  Required for proposed projects within Conservation districts. Aquaculture is generally defined as a permissable use within Resource (R) and General (G) subzones of Conservation districts.

- **Designated Groundwater Control Area Use Permit**

  Required for use of groundwaters in Ewa and Wahiawa Districts of Oahu only.

- **Historic Site Review**

  Construction, alteration or improvements within designated historic sites, public or private, cannot be undertaken without notification and review by the Department of Land and Natural Resources.

County Level

- **County Grading, Grubbing, and Stockpiling Permits**

  Required for clearing, grading, grubbing and stockpiling operations that have potential for inducing erosion. Requirements differ from County to County.

- **Well Permit**

  Required for construction or modification to fresh, brackish or salt-water wells on Oahu only.

- **County Building Permit**

  Required for structural components of aquaculture operations.

- **Various Classes of County Zoning and Use Permits**

  Various permits may be required for activities in Urban, Rural and Agricultural districts. Formal County Planning Commission review is generally not needed if the proposed operation or activity conforms with County General Plan and zoning designations.

B. Activities within Special Management Areas
Reference "B"

Federal Level

- **Federal Environmental Impact Statement**

  A Federal EIS is required for projects involving Federal lands, funds, loan guarantees or permits; placement of dredge and fill materials into navigable waters, including wetlands and streams; projects involving disturbances to designated national historic sites, threatened or endangered species, and critical wildlife habitats.

- **U.S. Department of the Army (Corps of Engineers) Permit**

  Required for projects producing significant environmental disturbances and involving dredging, filling, or placement of structures in navigable waters.

Federal-State Level

- **National Pollutant Discharge Elimination System (NPDES) Permit**

  May be required for aquaculture projects proposing to discharge treated or untreated wastewaters from defined point sources into coastal estuarine or wetland environments. Recent amendments now provide a general exemption for discharges from warmwater aquaculture facilities producing up to 100,000 pounds of aquatic animals per year. System also encompasses a "zone of mixing" variance procedure for effluent discharges which may exceed established standards of the receiving waters.

- **Floodplain Management Review**

  Will regulate proposed developments located on designated floodplains and tsunami inundation areas and may specify flood-proofing standards for commercial developments. Full regulatory impact is not known at this time. To be implemented in mid-1980.

- **Hawaii Coastal Zone Management Review**

  Applies only to direct Federal legislation or Federal agency actions, including permits, in the defined Coastal Zone Management Area of the State.

State Level

- **Hawaii Environmental Impact Statement**

  An EIS is required for applicant-proposed actions (assuming County or State "approving agency" determination of significant environmental effects) for: projects involving use of Conservation district lands and waters; actions involving State or County land or funds; projects within designated historic sites; projects located in a Shoreline Setback Area; and for projects involving disturbances to threatened or endangered species. Recent amendments to the Special Management Area (SMA) regulations now exclude most aquaculture/mariculture facilities (located in the SMA) from the permit process and, as a result, from the EIS requirements that are usually part of the review process. However, these new regulations do not reflect a categorical exemption, but instead allow an exemption based upon a determination of overall project scope and environmental impact considerations.

- **Permit for Work in Shorewaters of the State**

  Similar to Federal Corps of Engineers permit in that this permit is required for filling, dredging or construction in shorewaters of the State.

- **Conservation District Use Permit**

  Required for aquaculture activities on shorelands or submerged lands, public or private, that are zoned as Conservation districts. Aquaculture and mariculture are defined as permissable uses within Resource (R) and General (G) subzones of Conservation districts. Effective January 1, 1978, permit applications for work in shorewaters of the State are now processed simultaneously with Conservation District Use Permit applications.

- **Historic Site Review**

  Allows for review of projects which may affect designated (or eligible for designation) State or Federal historic sites.

- **Designated Groundwater Control Area Use Permit**

  Required for use of groundwaters in Ewa and Wahiawa districts of Oahu only.

- **Special Management Area (SMA) Permit**

  This permit is required for land and water developments in the SMA. Recent amendments now exclude most aquaculture/mariculture facilities or activities in the SMA from the permit requirements, unless it is determined that the proposed actions would result in significant environmental impact.

- **Shoreline Setback Variance**

  Required for projects or project components involving disturbances to, or construction in, the shoreline zone beginning at the highest wash of the waves and extending 20 or 40 feet inland.

- **County Grading, Grubbing and Stockpiling Permits**

  Required for clearing, grading, grubbing and stockpiling operations that have potential for inducing erosion. Requirements differ from County to County.

- **Well Permit**

  Required for construction of, or modification to, fresh, brackish or saltwater wells on Oahu only.

- **Various Classes of County Zoning and Use Permits**

  Various permits may be required for activities in Urban, Rural and Agricultural districts. Formal County Planning Commission review is generally not needed if the proposed operation or activity conforms with County General Plan and zoning designations.

- **County Building Permit**

  Required for certain structural components of aquaculture projects.

C. Activities Seaward of the Shoreline Reference "C"

Federal Level

- **Federal Environmental Impact Statement**

  A Federal EIS is required for projects involving the use of Federal lands, funds, loan guarantees and permits; placement of dredge and fill materials into navigable waters and wetlands; projects involving disturbances to designated national historic sites, threatened or endangered species, and critical wildlife habitats.

- **U.S. Department of the Army (Corps of Engineers) Permit**

  Required for all actions involving dredging, filling, construction, placement of structures, extension of piers, and dumping of dredged or fill materials into coastal waters. The issuance of a Corps of Engineers permit is often based upon approval of a Federal environmental impact statement.

Federal-State Level

- **National Pollutant Discharge Elimination System (NPDES) Permit**

  May be required for aquaculture projects proposing to discharge treated or untreated effluent waters from defined point sources into coastal or estuarine environments. System also encompasses a "zone of mixing" variance procedure for effluent discharges which may exceed established

standards of the receiving waters. Warmwater aquaculture operations producing less than 100,000 pounds of aquatic animals per year are normally exempt from the permit requirements.

- **Floodplain Management Review**

  Will regulate proposed developments located on designated floodplains (such as coastal swamps and wetlands) and tsunami inundation areas and may specify flood-proofing standards for commercial developments. To be implemented in mid-1980.

- **Hawaii Coastal Zone Management Consistency Review**

  Applies only to direct Federal legislation or Federal agency actions, including permits, in the defined Coastal Zone Management Area of the State.

State Level

- **State Environmental Impact Statement**

  Required for actions involving State or County lands or funds; for projects involving use of Conservation district lands (submerged lands and coastal waters are in the Conservation district); for projects involving historic or archaeological sites (fishponds), and for most projects requiring State or County permits or review actions.

- **Permit for Work in Shorewaters of the State**

  Required for such activities as dredging, filling, construction, placement of structures, and dumping of materials below the mean high water mark.

- **Conservation District Use Permit**

  Required for aquaculture/mariculture-related activities in the Conservation district. Lands having an elevation below the maximum line of the zone of wave action, marine waters, fishponds, and tide pools of the State are in the Conservation district, unless designated otherwise.

- **Historic Site Review**

  Allows for review of projects which may affect designated (or eligible for designation) State or Federal historic sites. This review would pertain to projects affecting traditional Hawaiian fishponds or other submerged or partially submerged historic sites.

County permit authority normally does not extend seaward of the legally defined shoreline, except for restrictions on the commercial removal of sand within 1000 feet seaward of the shoreline or in ocean waters less than 30 feet in depth. Permit authority over aquaculture uses seaward of the shoreline is delegated to State and Federal agencies. However, as a matter of policy, State and Federal agencies forward project proposals to the respective County authorities to obtain input on a project's conformity to the General Plan of the County in question.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Population and Ethnic Diversity

The Modern Social History of Hawai'i

This outline can be used as an introduction to and/or a review of events and trends in Hawai'i's history. It provides background to an understanding of contemporary events and issues in our state and shows changes that have taken place over time. It can be used to spark discussion on pattern and relationships in events, possible causes of certain changes, why a certain event took place at a particular time, and what changes might occur in the future. Numerous activities are suggested for use with the outline.

DEFINITIONS

Ali'i: The Hawaiian word for a chief or a member of the noble class.

Haole: The Hawaiian word for a foreigner. Later *haole* is used to mean Caucasian.

Kuhina nui: A powerful position in the early days of the Hawaiian government, created by Ka'ahumanu in 1819. Sometimes this is translated as prime minister or premier.

Maka'āinana: The Hawaiian word for a commoner or the common people.

Regent: The person who acts as protector and substitute ruler for a young monarch until the monarch reaches an age and maturity to fully assume the powers and responsibilities of ruling. Ka'ahumanu became regent for Kamehameha III because he was only a boy when he became king.

OUTLINE

1778-1819

1778 WESTERN INFLUENCE: British Captain James Cook, exploring the Pacific, arrives in Hawai'i. This is the first confirmed western contact. Cook names the islands the Sandwich Islands, after Lord Sandwich of Britain. Arriving during the *makahiki* festival, Cook is mistaken for the Hawaiian god Lono. During a return visit in 1779, Cook is killed during a brief fight with Hawaiians at Kealakekua Bay.

1778 POPULATION: At the time of Cook's arrival there are an estimated 300,000 native Hawaiians.

1778 CULTURE AND THE ARTS: John Webber, a crew member and artist aboard Captain Cook's ship, begins a series of drawings of Hawai'i as seen through a westerner's eyes.

1786 to 1794 WESTERN INFLUENCE: Fur traders are the first traders from North America who stop in Hawai'i for supplies, rest,

and recruitment of Hawaiian sailors. This stimulates cultural and economic exchanges and exposes native Hawaiians to diseases to which they have little resistance.

1790 WESTERN INFLUENCE: Foreigners begin to take an interest in Hawaiian sandalwood, and small amounts are exported to China until 1811, when a more active exploitation of the resource is begun by three Americans.

1790 WESTERN INFLUENCE: Foreigners are given special power and status in Hawaiian society. Two English sailors (John Young and Isaac Davis) become trusted advisors to Kamehameha I. Both marry Hawaiian women and are given the status of *ali'i*. John Young's part-Hawaiian granddaughter later becomes Kamehameha IV's queen (Emma Rooke).

1793 WESTERN INFLUENCE: British Captain George Vancouver and other foreigners introduce cattle, horses, goats, and numerous plants and foods. This ultimately affects Hawai'i's flora and fauna, as well as the eating habits of Hawaiians.

1802 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: The first sugar crop in Hawai'i is produced on Kaua'i by an early Chinese immigrant who came as a result of the sandalwood trade.

1811 WESTERN INFLUENCE: The chiefs increase their involvement in the sandalwood trade with foreigners, greatly oppressing the health and welfare of commoners, who are forced to neglect their fields and to work in the cold and damp mountains.

1819 RELIGION: Kamehameha the Great dies, designating his young son Liholiho as his successor and his favorite wife, Ka'ahumanu, as regent until Liholiho is old enough to fully assume his kingly duties. Ka'ahumanu declares herself to be the *kuhina nui* and begins to dominate the government. One of her first acts is to persuade Liholiho to help her abolish the traditional *kapu* system. As word of the end of the *kapu* system is spread, traditional gods and icons are destroyed throughout the kingdom, leaving Hawai'i without a secure religious system.

1820-1839

1820 WESTERN INFLUENCE: A rich whale fishery is discovered off Japan, making Hawai'i an important location for provisions and rest among Pacific whalers. This leads to regular visits by whalers whose desire for women and liquor disrupts social life in the port towns.

1820 POPULATION: The population of Honolulu town reaches 4,000 as foreign commerce transforms the small village to a growing commercial center.

1820 RELIGION: The first American Calvinist missionaries arrive, including two ordained ministers (Hiram Bingham and Asa Thurston), a physician (Thomas Holman), two schoolmasters (Samuel Whitney and Samuel Ruggles), a printer (Elisha Loomis), a farmer (Daniel Chamberlain), their wives, and three Hawaiian youths schooled in New England. Between 1820 and 1848 a total of 84 men and 100 women will come to Hawai'i, determined to transform the spiritual and secular lives of the Hawaiians.

1822 EDUCATION: The first printed pages in the Hawaiian language are produced--in the form of spelling and reading books --by the missionaries. The first laws are also printed this year.

1823 POPULATION: The native Hawaiian population, hard hit by western diseases, is reduced to approximately 134,750, or less than half of their 1778 total.

1823 RELIGION: The first Christian church in the islands is Moku'aikaua Protestant Church in Kailua-Kona.

1824 EDUCATION: Promoting education as a first step in their transformation of Hawaiian society, missionaries estimate their primitive schools serve approximately 2,000 Hawaiian students, mostly curious adults. Supported by Ka'ahumanu and several chiefs, education grows. By 1826 missionaries claim that 25,000 students are taught by 400 teachers, most of whom are Hawaiian.

1824 WESTERN INFLUENCE and RELIGION: New laws are imposed on the people by Ka'ahumanu and the chiefs. Based on the teachings of the missionaries, they include strict observance of the Sabbath and prohibition of murder, theft, boxing, fighting, and work on the Sabbath. There is also a requirement that people attend schools.

1825 RELIGION: The chiefs ban promiscuity and Hawaiian games associated with gambling, indicating the increasing influence of western religious values.

1827 WESTERN INFLUENCE and RELIGION: The first French Catholic missionaries arrive, posing the first foreign religious threat to Calvinist Christianity and providing numerous future excuses for French interference in Hawai'i's government and society.

1829 RELIGION: Zealous Protestant Hawaiian chiefs persuade Kamehameha III (Kauikeaouli) to forbid natives from attending Catholic services.

1830 Mail commonly takes two to three years to arrive in Hawai'i from the U.S., sometimes being routed by way of China.

1830 CULTURE AND THE ARTS: An edict by Ka'ahumanu forbids public performance of the hula. After her death in 1832 the chiefs allow private hula performances, but the edict is not revoked for 53 years.

1831 EDUCATION: Missionaries claim there are 1,100 schools in the islands, teaching approximately 50,000 natives or about two-fifths of the population. By 1832 there are claims that one-half of the native population can read some Hawaiian.

1831 EDUCATION: Lahainaluna High School on Maui is begun, the first high school west of the Rockies.

1833 to 1846 CULTURE AND THE ARTS: The Lahaina Engravings, produced by Hawaiian students such as Kepohoni, depict scenes of early nineteenth century Hawai'i. These engravings are used for textbooks and other instructional materials.

1834 The first newspaper written in Hawaiian, *Ka Lama Hawaii*, is produced by the Lahainaluna Press. That same year Honolulu's first Hawaiian language paper is printed, *Ke Kumu Hawaii*.

1836 WESTERN INFLUENCE and RELIGION: Catholic missionaries are asked to leave, stimulating French insistence on a treaty in 1837.

1836 The first English language newspaper west of the Rockies is printed, the *Sandwich Isles Gazette*.

1837 RELIGION: Kamehameha III (Kauikeaouli) bans the practice and teaching of Catholicism, resulting in an 1839 demand by French Captain Laplace for a treaty guaranteeing religious freedom. In 1839 the King signs an edict of toleration of Catholicism.

1838 EDUCATION: The first English language quarterly review, *The Hawaiian Spectator*, and the first illustrated Hawaiian language anatomy text are printed. By 1839 the entire Bible is translated into Hawaiian.

1839 EDUCATION: The Royal School is started by Mr. and Mrs. Amos Starr Cooke for children of high chiefs. The following year missionaries begin planning a school for their own children, and Punahou opens in 1842.

1839 WESTERN INFLUENCE: The missionaries promote new governmental reforms, one of which is a declaration of rights granting certain property rights to commoners.

<u>1840-1859</u>

1840 WESTERN INFLUENCE: The Hawaiian government adopts Hawai'i's first constitution, which includes a restatement of the declaration of rights, freedom of religion, trial by jury, a two-house legislature, and voting rights for commoners.

1840 RELIGION: An estimated 18 percent of native Hawaiians are Protestants.

1840 WESTERN INFLUENCE: Foreigners have gained a privileged place in Hawai'i,

including rights of residence and full naturalization, freedom to do business, freedom of speech and worship, exemption from labor taxes, access to the courts, trial before a jury approved by their consul, and the right of frequent intervention by their governments to further protect them. By 1844 fourteen are members of Kamehameha III's government.

1842 RELIGION: Kawaiaha'o Congregational Church is the first Christian church to be built in Honolulu.

1843 EDUCATION: Sheldon Dibble of Lahainaluna publishes the first history of the Hawaiian Islands.

1843 RELIGION: Our Lady of Peace Catholic Cathedral on Fort Street is built.

1844 A weekly newspaper, *The Polynesian*, becomes an official government publication. It is edited by a young New Englander, James Jackson Jarves.

1845 to 1847 WESTERN INFLUENCE: It is estimated that over 2,000 Hawaiians are working as seamen on foreign vessels.

1846 *The Sandwich Islands News* is started as an opposition paper critical of government policies and personalities.

1846 EDUCATION: Organic acts establish a Department of Public Instruction and a postal system. William Richards becomes the first Minister of Public Instruction.

1848 WESTERN INFLUENCE: The Great Māhele begins the division of all lands, ending the traditional Hawaiian system of land control. It further severs the traditional relationship between *ali'i* and *maka'āinana* (commoners), and eventually results in the commoners' loss of land.

1850 POPULATION: Honolulu is declared to be a city with a population of approximately 14,000, indicating the increasing importance of commerce and the growth of urbanization.

1850 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: Hawaiians number 82,035, part-Hawaiians 558, and non-Hawaiians 1,572. This totals 84,165.

1850 The Masters and Servants Act is passed. It outlines the legal relationship between plantation owners and imported labor, clearly making laborers second-class citizens.

1850 A new department store, Liberty House, is started by Hackfeld & Co.

1850 The growth of trade and the opening up of markets on the west coast of North America stimulate Hawai'i's economic life. Honolulu Harbor is improved, 750,000 pounds of sugar are exported, regular mail service is begun with the United States, and Hawai'i is a regular stop for whaling vessels.

1850 EDUCATION: The Education Act of 1850 sets aside one-twentieth of all government land for the support of educa-

tion. The labor tax is also changed to a school tax.

1850 to 1880 EDUCATION: Four Hawaiian scholars, David Malo (1793-1887), John Papa 'Ī'ī (1800-1879), Samuel Kamakau (1815-1876), and Kepelino Keauokalani (1830-1878) begin to document the history of the Hawaiian Islands. Malo and 'Ī'ī become very active in government as well.

1851 to 1852 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: Chinese laborers, the first of many groups, are brought to work on the plantations.

1852 WESTERN INFLUENCE: The spring and fall whaling seasons find riotous sailors roaming the streets of Honolulu, angry at missionary-inspired laws restricting their activities and contact with Hawaiian women. The impact of the whaling fleets on Hawai'i is especially felt in the spread of western diseases.

1853 POPULATION: The native Hawaiian population has declined to approximately 70,000. Honolulu has grown to 11,455, including 2,229 *haole*s. Between 1853 and 1866 the native population further declines to 57,000.

1853 RELIGION: Missionaries estimate that approximately 30% of Hawaiians are Protestant. The American Board of Foreign Missions declares Hawai'i to be "Christianized."

1854 RELIGION: The City of Joseph is established on Lāna'i by newly arrived Mormons.

1854 EDUCATION: Legislative support is granted to establish English language schools in Hawai'i.

1855 EDUCATION: A new law places the control of public education under a board of education with Richard Armstrong as president.

1855 to 1857 WESTERN INFLUENCE: Whaling in the Pacific hits its peak as an average of 400 whaling ships stop in Hawai'i each year.

1856 *The Pacific Commercial Advertiser*, forerunner to *The Honolulu Advertiser*, begins weekly publication. In 1882 it becomes a daily.

1859 EDUCATION: New laws specify curriculum content and required teaching of reading, writing, and arithmetic.

1860-1879

1860 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: Hawai'i's population in 1860 includes 65,647 Hawaiians, 1,337 part-Hawaiians, 1,900 Caucasians, 816 Chinese, and 100 others. This totals 69,800.

1860 Through the efforts of Queen Emma, wife of Kamehameha IV, Queen's Hospital is built.

1863 Steamer transportation begins between Honolulu and San Francisco and between Honolulu and Australia.

1863 to 1872 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: Approximately 2,000 immigrant workers are brought to Hawai'i, of whom 85 percent are Chinese and 10 percent and Pacific Islanders.

1864 The Bureau of Immigration is formed to aid the growing plantations in filling their need for immigrant labor.

1864 Kalaupapa on Moloka'i is designated a site for lepers.

1864 EDUCATION: Mid-Pacific Institute is founded as a boarding school.

1865 EDUCATION: Lorrin Andrews publishes *A Dictionary of the Hawaiian Language*, considered the most comprehensive dictionary at this time.

1865 RELIGION: Mormons settle at Lā'ie, O'ahu.

1866 Mark Twain visits and writes about Hawai'i.

1866 POPULATION: Hawaiians decline to 58,765 out of a total island population of 62,959.

1867 U.S. Congress provides $75,000 a year for regular steamship mail service to Hawai'i.

1868 CULTURE AND THE ARTS: The Royal Hawaiian Band is formed under the direction of a German bandmaster, Heinrich Berger.

1868 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: The first 148 Japanese laborers are brought to Hawai'i to work on plantations.

1870 WESTERN INFLUENCE: Whaling has declined dramatically; only 71 vessels visit each year in the early 1870s.

1871 to 1872 The first hotel, the Hawaiian Hotel, is built at the corner of Hotel and Richards Streets in Honolulu. It later becomes known as the Royal Hawaiian Hotel.

1873 RELIGION: A Belgian priest, Father Damien Joseph de Veuster, goes to Moloka'i to work with lepers. In 1883 Father Damien contracts leprosy, and six years later, in 1889, he dies of the disease.

1874 CULTURE AND THE ARTS: *Hawai'i Pono'ī*, later to become Hawai'i's state anthem, is written by King Kalakaua. The music is based on a German drinking song chosen by Captain Henry Berger.

1874 Ali'iolani Hale, "House of the Heavenly Chiefs," is designed to be the King's palace but becomes the Parliament-Government office building instead. It is now the State Judiciary Building.

1874 King Lunalilo dies, leaving money for the Lunalilo Home for the aged.

1874 to 1891 CULTURE AND THE ARTS: Kalākaua attempts to strengthen the Hawaiian Kingdom's prestige and traditional culture. He visits the United States, the first monarch to do so; travels around the world, another historical first for a reigning monarch; celebrates his coronation with the building of a lavish palace; revives the public performance of the hula; supports the legalization of *kahuna* medicine; has the Hawaiian creation chant, the *Kumulipo*, recorded in writing for the first time; and forms a secret society, Hale Naua, whose object is the revival of ancient sciences in Hawai'i.

1875 The Pacific Mail Steamship Company begins monthly mail service to San Francisco, Honolulu, and the British colonies.

1875 T. G. Thrum begins publishing *The Hawaiian Almanac and Annual*, an important record of life in Hawai'i.

1877 CULTURE AND THE ARTS: The most famous of Hawaiian songs, *Aloha 'Oe*, is written by Lili'uokalani.

1877 to 1890 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: Over 55,000 Chinese laborers are brought to Hawai'i, approximately 8,000 from California.

1878 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: The first Portuguese immigrants arrive in Hawai'i to work on plantations.

1878 CULTURE AND THE ARTS: The Portuguese bring the *braquino* or *cavaquinho*, which the Hawaiians call the *'ukulele*.

1878 The first telephone lines are installed in Honolulu and Maui.

1880-1899

1880s CULTURE AND THE ARTS: Slack key playing *(kī ho'alu)*, the tuning of a guitar by loosening certain strings, gains great popularity among Hawaiian musicians. The guitar was originally introduced by the Spanish.

1882 'Iolani Palace, the only royal palace in the U.S., is completed.

1882 *The Evening Bulletin*, a daily paper, begins publication. Later the *Bulletin* joins with the *Hawaiian Star* to form today's *Honolulu Star-Bulletin*.

1883 CULTURE AND THE ARTS: The statue of Kamehameha the Great is dedicated in front of Ali'iolani Hale.

1883 CULTURE AND THE ARTS: Full recognition of the hula as public entertainment comes during Kalākaua's reign.

1884 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: A Japanese-Hawai'i treaty is signed permitting the fur-

ther importation of Japanese contract laborers to Hawai'i.

1884 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: The population of Hawai'i totals 80,578: 40,014 Hawaiians; 4,218 part-Hawaiians; 16,579 Caucasians, including Portuguese; 18,254 Chinese; 166 Japanese; and 1,397 others. By 1886 approximately one-half of the Chinese are living in Honolulu. Being the first to move off the plantations, they become an urban commercial class.

1884 EDUCATION: The Bishop Estate is established from the estate of Bernice Pauahi Bishop for the purpose of benefiting native Hawaiians. By 1887 the Estate establishes the Kamehameha School for Boys, followed by the School for Girls in 1894.

1888 RELIGION: St. Andrew's Anglican Church is completed.

1888 The streets of Honolulu are lighted by electricity, and the first mule-drawn street railway begins service.

1888 EDUCATION: Teacher training classes are begun, the forerunner of a future teacher's college.

1889 EDUCATION: The Bernice Pauahi Bishop Museum of Polynesian Ethnology and Natural History is founded by Charles Reed Bishop in memory of his wife. It becomes an internationally known research center on Polynesian life and environment.

1889 Communication is enhanced as a parcel post system with the United States is inaugurated and the first interisland submarine cable system between Maui and Moloka'i is completed.

1890 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: The population of Hawai'i totals approximately 90,000. This includes roughly 41,000 Hawaiians and part-Hawaiians, 15,000 Chinese, 12,000 Japanese, 9,000 Portuguese, and 2,000 Americans.

1893 CULTURE AND THE ARTS: Joseph Kekuku, a Kamehameha school student, creates the steel guitar.

1895 EDUCATION: Honolulu High School (now McKinley) is founded.

1895 A cholera epidemic is recorded in the islands.

1896 EDUCATION: Honolulu Normal and Training School is established for the training of new teachers.

1898 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: Approximately 29,000 Japanese laborers arrive between 1898 and 1899.

1899 to 1900 At the end of 1899 five fatal cases of bubonic plague are reported. Board of Health officials discover unbelievably overcrowded conditions in Honolulu's slum area. Quarantine, inspection, and disinfection prove ineffective in fighting the epidemic. Officials resort to burning infected structures. On January 20, 1900, one such fire

burns out of control, destroying 38 acres of Chinatown. More than 1,000 persons are left homeless. The plague is finally declared ended on April 30 after taking 70 lives and afflicting 80 others.

1900-1919

1900 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: Hawai'i's population has grown to 154,001. This includes 29,799 Hawaiians, 7,857 part-Hawaiians, 28,819 Caucasians, 25,767 Chinese, 61,111 Japanese, 233 Blacks, and 415 others.

1900 The Chinese Chamber of Commerce and the Japanese Chamber of Commerce are formed.

1900 CULTURE AND THE ARTS: The Symphony Society is begun.

1900 to 1910 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: Approximately 5,000 Koreans come to Hawai'i, some to work on the plantations, others to work for Korean independence.

1901 The first Waikīkī hotel, the Moana, is built.

1902 The average daily skilled worker's wage on plantations varies according to ethnic group: Haole $4.22, Hawaiian $1.80, Portuguese $1.69, Chinese $1.22, Japanese $1.06.

1905 EDUCATION: Hilo High School is established.

1906 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: Approximately 12,891 Portuguese immigrate to Hawai'i from 1906 to 1913, as well as 12,000 Russians. The Russians, however, do not stay long.

1906 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: Filipinos are brought to Hawai'i, the first of 126,000 to arrive between 1906 and 1946.

1907 EDUCATION: The forerunner of the University of Hawai'i, the College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, is established. It changes its name to College of Hawai'i in 1911. The following year it moves from its Thomas Square site to Mānoa. In 1920 it becomes the University of Hawai'i.

1908 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: To date, 180,000 Japanese have come to Hawai'i and 126,000 have returned to Japan.

1909 CULTURE AND THE ARTS: *The Unwritten Literature of Hawaii: The Sacred Songs of the Hula* is published by Nathaniel B. Emerson. It is the only comprehensive study and collection of Hawaiian chants and songs at this time.

1910 The Outrigger Canoe Club is formed, symbolizing the growing importance of Waikīkī and the revival of traditional Hawaiian water sports such as surfing and canoeing.

1912 Duke Kahanamoku breaks the world record for the 100-meter swim and is

awarded the gold medal at the International Olympic Games. He accomplishes the same feat at the 1920 Olympics and also participates in the 1924 and 1928 Olympics.

1913 EDUCATION: Maui High School is founded.

1913 The Outdoor Circle's Billboard Committee is formed. It begins one of the most successful beautification efforts in the United States and is ultimately responsible for banning billboards and controlling unsightly advertising in Hawai'i.

1913 EDUCATION: The Library of Hawai'i, now the State Library, is established.

1914 EDUCATION: Kaua'i High School is founded.

1918 RELIGION: As the Japanese community in Hawai'i grows, it builds numerous Buddhist temples. One of the largest built this year is the Honpa Hongwanji Mission Temple in Nu'uanu, O'ahu.

1919 ETHNIC DIVERSITY and EDUCATION: There are 163 Japanese language schools with approximately 20,000 students and 450 teachers. Also preserving ethnic traditions are 20 Chinese and Korean language schools with 2,000 students.

1919 RELIGION: The Mormon Temple is completed in Lā'ie.

1920-1939

1920 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: Hawai'i's population reaches 255,912. It includes 23,723 Hawaiians, 18,027 part-Hawaiians, 54,742 Caucasians, 23,507 Chinese, 109,274 Japanese, 348 Blacks, 4,950 Koreans, 21,031 Filipinos, and 310 others. The Japanese represent 42.7 percent of the population.

1920 EDUCATION: 40 percent of all 16- and 17-year-olds are in high school.

1920 to 1930 EDUCATION: The first public English Standard School is established as a reaction against the growing use of pidgin. These schools effectively segregate and control the non-Caucasian community.

1921 EDUCATION: The Hawai'i Educational Association is organized, representing the growing professionalization of teaching.

1922 CULTURE AND THE ARTS: The Honolulu Academy of Arts is established.

1923 EDUCATION: Catholic College, the forerunner of Chaminade, moves to St. Louis Heights.

1924 RELIGION: Modeled after New England churches, Central Union Congregational Church at Beretania and Punahou Street, is built to honor the first New England missionaries.

1926 The Aloha Tower, a landmark for visitors arriving or departing by ship, is completed. It is the tallest building in Hawai'i until Tripler Army Hospital is built in 1948.

1927 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: The U.S. Supreme Court upholds the right of Japanese to operate Japanese Language Schools.

1927 CULTURE AND THE ARTS: "The Pink Lady," the Royal Hawaiian Hotel, is built in Waikīkī. This same year the Honolulu Academy of Arts building is completed.

1930s Two more department stores—Sears and Kress, national chain stores—open branches in Hawai'i.

1930 EDUCATION: Hawai'i has nine high schools and 16 schools with junior high grades.

1931 The much publicized Massie case intensifies racial discord and damages the statehood movement in Congress.

1937 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: Maui Filipinos are involved in the last single-ethnic group strike. Hereafter, strikes represent coalitions of different ethnic labor groups.

1938 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: The first Filipino Labor Conference is held, reflecting the growing power and ethnic identity of Filipinos.

1940-1959

1940 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: Hawai'i's population reaches 423,330. It includes 14,375 Hawaiians, 49,935 part-Hawaiians, 112,087 Caucasians, 28,774 Chinese, 157,905 Japanese, 255 Blacks, 6,851 Koreans, 52,569 Filipinos, and 579 others.

1940 Pan Am *Clipper* airplanes with a capacity of 32 passengers fly from the U.S. mainland in 19 hours.

1941 Pearl Harbor is attacked, martial law is declared, and the Japanese community is held under suspicion.

1944 The heroism of Americans of Japanese Ancestry (AJAs) during World War II contributes to their attainment of full participation in Hawaiian society.

1944 POPULATION: Approximately 254,000 U.S. troops are stationed in Hawai'i, significantly affecting life in the islands.

1944 The National Labor Relations Board recognizes 34 Hawai'i unions, helping to provide political and economic power to groups working on the plantations.

1945 Of Hawai'i's war casualties, 80 percent of those killed are AJAs. They also account for 88 percent of those wounded.

1945 Passage of the Hawai'i Employment Relations Act makes possible the organization of agricultural workers by the International Longshoremen's and Warehousemen's Union (ILWU). As a result, the ILWU wins an election in 1945 to be the bargaining agent for these workers. In the same year it succeeds in obtaining an industry-wide sugar contract. It is followed in 1946 by industry-wide contracts for pineapple workers and longshoremen.

1947 In Hawai'i the American Federation of Labor (AFL) can boast of having 47 labor organizations and the Congress of Industrial Organization (CIO) 18. Together they have a membership of 50,000 to 60,000.

1948 The last Hawaiian language newspaper, *Ka Hoku o Hawai'i*, goes out of print in Hilo.

1948 The beginnings of the communist scare are felt as John and Aiko Reinecke are dismissed from their teaching positions in the public schools over charges of being communists.

1949 The National Memorial Cemetery of the Pacific (Punchbowl) is officially opened as a war memorial.

1949 A major dock strike by the ILWU dramatically affects Hawai'i's economy for six months.

1950 ETHNIC DIVERSITY and EDUCATION: 8.8 percent of the Chinese, 3 percent of the Japanese, 2.4 percent of the Hawaiians, and 0.3 percent of the Filipinos over 25 years old are college graduates.

1950 EDUCATION: 85.8 percent of all 16- and 17-year-olds are in high school.

1950 to 1953 As the fear of communist influence in America spreads, the U.S. House Un-American Activities Subcommittee holds hearings in Hawai'i to investigate communist influence in unions. The ILWU is expelled from the CIO under suspicion of being communist led. In 1953 several Hawai'i union leaders are convicted of violating the Smith Act, which makes it a crime to be associated with a group advocating the violent overthrow of the government. Their convictions are later overturned.

1951 to 1952 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: Samoans migrate to Hawai'i with the help of the U.S. Navy, which transports 1,332 Samoan naval personnel, their dependents, and others who have sponsors in Hawai'i. Most of these earlier Samoan migrants settle in the Pearl Harbor naval housing area and in Lā'ie.

1952 to 1958 Rejuvenated by World War II veterans, primarily *nisei* (second generation Japanese-Americans), a growing Democratic Party is composed of three fac-

tions: one dominated by the ILWU, one led by Jack Burns, and one composed of so-called Independents.

1954 The Democratic Party is able to unite its three factions. It appeals to minorities who have felt left out of full participation in Hawai'i's society and gains control of the territorial legislature.

1954 The Honolulu Filipino Chamber of Commerce is formed.

1955 EDUCATION: Church College at Lā'ie (presently known as Brigham Young University-Hawai'i) is established. Chaminade College is founded the same year.

1957 The Nu'uanu Pali tunnels are dedicated, opening up the windward area of O'ahu to urbanization.

1959 Hawai'i becomes the fiftieth state of the Union.

1959 EDUCATION: There are 208 public schools in Hawai'i, and the University of Hawai'i enrolls 6,000 full-time students.

1960-1982

1960 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: Hawai'i's population reaches 632,772. It includes 11,294 Hawaiians, 91,109 part-Hawaiians, 202,230 Caucasians, 38,197 Chinese, 203,455 Japanese, 4,943 Blacks, 69,700 Filipinos, 472 American Indians, and 12,002 others.

1960 The Wilson Tunnels, named after Honolulu's three-term mayor, John H. Wilson, is completed after taking the lives of six workers.

1960 to 1970 During these ten years, the number of tourists coming to Hawai'i increases by 20 percent each year, for a total of a six-fold increase. People arriving by ship decline as air travel begins to take over the tourist transportation system.

1960 to 1970 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: 123,780 people from the U.S. mainland, mostly from the three west coast states, come to live in Hawai'i.

1962 EDUCATION: The East-West Center is established at the University of Hawai'i's Mānoa campus.

1963 EDUCATION: Hawai'i Loa College is founded.

1964 The Honolulu International Center, now the Neal Blaisdell Center, is completed.

1965 CULTURE AND THE ARTS: The State Foundation on Culture and the Arts is established.

1965 EDUCATION: Hawai'i Pacific College is established.

135

1965-present ETHNIC DIVERSITY: Changes in the national immigration laws result in an influx of Filipino immigrants, many of whom come to reunite with family members who immigrated in the early 1900s. Since 1965 Filipinos have been immigrating to Hawai'i at an average of about 3,800 per year.

1966 CULTURE AND THE ARTS: Popular singer and composer Kui Lee dies at the age of 34. He is credited with starting contemporary local music.

1966 Ala Moana Shopping Center is built. It is the largest shopping center in the world at this time.

1968 The Hawai'i State Capitol building is completed.

1968 The Pacific Club, founded in 1851 as an exclusive club for Caucasian men, is finally desegregated.

1969 CULTURE AND THE ARTS: The State Legislature passes the Art in State Buildings law. It requires that 1 percent of the total budget for a new public building be set aside for the acquisition of artwork.

1970 CULTURE AND THE ARTS: Don Ho signs a 6.5 million dollar contract with Cinerama Hotels, making him the highest paid entertainer in Hawai'i.

1970 POPULATION: As of this date, there are an estimated 6,000 descendants of the missionaries, of whom 2,000 are registered with the Hawai'i Mission Children's Society.

1970 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: Following the elections, AJAs--with 29 percent of the population--hold three out of four Congressional seats, 50 percent of the seats in the State House of Representatives, and 40 percent of the seats in the State Senate. By 1974 the first AJA is elected governor.

1970-present Ethnic Hawaiians begin to organize political action groups, most dealing with land reform issues. These groups include The Hawaiians (1970), The Congress of Hawaiian People (1971), Aboriginal Lands of Hawaiian Ancestry (ALOHA, 1972), the Homerule Movement (1973), the Coalition of Native Hawaiian Claims (now the Hawaii Legal Corporation, 1974), Hui Ala Loa (1975), and the Protect Kaho'olawe 'Ohana (1976). This movement finds legal expression in the creation of the Office of Hawaiian Affairs (OHA) by the 1978 Constitutional Convention and the creation of a congressional committee to study Hawaiian claims.

1970-present A citizens' participation movement grows in Hawai'i, partly fed by Vietnam War protesters, civil rights activists, and the environmental movement. New groups are formed such as Life of the Land, community associations, and coalitions like the Council of Presidents. They are joined

those concerned with procedural reforms, including the League of Women Voters and Common Cause. The City and County of Honolulu begins to experiment with elected neighborhood boards.

1970-present CULTURE AND THE ARTS: There is a revival of interest in Hawaiian culture, popularly known as the Hawaiian Renaissance. Hawaiian music is modernized by groups such as the Sunday Mānoa. Hale Naua III, the Society of Hawaiian Artists, is formed. The construction and successful voyages of the *Hōkūle'a* stimulate an interest in ancient Hawaiian traditions. There is a tremendous growth in canoe clubs and *hula hālau*. New books on Hawaiian culture and history appear. Hawaiian language and culture is taught in the public schools.

1970-present ETHNIC DIVERSITY and CULTURE AND THE ARTS: Interest grows in local ethnic culture. The Ethnic Studies Program is established at the University of Hawai'i. In 1975 the Oral History Project is started, recording the memories of plantation workers. A local comedy group, Booga Booga, brings popular attention to ethnic humor. The 1978 Talk Story Conference stimulates the work of local writers. New publications highlight ethnic poetry and prose. The Hawaiian Renaissance spreads the popularity of Hawaiian music and art. Ethnic pride becomes a dominant social theme.

1970-present EDUCATION: Innovative public education programs include marine education, energy education, Hawaiian studies, nutrition education, career education, and language education. In 1983 the Legislature appropriates funds for a computer education program.

1973 *The Hawaii Observer*, an investigative magazine, begins to record and analyze the changes in Hawai'i's economic, political, and social life during the 1970s. Until its demise in 1978 it provides an alternative to the established media and paves the way for future publications of this type.

1974 Alu Like, a nonprofit organization established to tap federal funds for which Hawaiians are eligible, is formed as a result of Title VIII, Native American Programs Act.

1975 The Aloha Stadium is completed at Hālawa, O'ahu.

1978 CULTURE AND THE ARTS: 'Iolani Luahine, one of the most respected dancers of ancient hula for over two decades, dies.

1980 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: There are now 5,600 Indochinese (Cambodians, Laotians, and Vietnamese) refugees living in Hawai'i. They have come as a result of the wars in Southeast Asia during the late 1960s and 1970s.

1980 CULTURE AND THE ARTS: Two hundred and fifty participants compete in the Merrie Monarch Festival in Hilo, the most prestigious hula and chant competition. Beginning in 1970 with a modest nine participants, the increase in numbers reflects the growing interest of ethnic Hawaiians in their culture.

1980 ETHNIC DIVERSITY: Hawai'i's population totals 964,691. It includes 115,500 Hawaiians and part-Hawaiians, 318,770 Caucasians, 56,285 Chinese, 239,748 Japanese, 17,364 Blacks, 17,962 Koreans, 133,940 Filipinos, 2,655 American Indians, 14,073 Samoans, 3,463 Vietnamese, and 44,931 others.

1982 Over 10,000 run in the tenth Honolulu Marathon, as the health and fitness movement gains popularity in Hawai'i. Parks and roads are filled with joggers and cyclists. More health food stores and fitness centers appear, and nearly every weekend, amateur athletic competitions, from team sports to road races to triathlons, are scheduled.

Activities for the Outline, "The Modern Social History of Hawai'i"

Activity 1: Evaluating Western Influence, 1778-1819

a. What is meant by the term "Western Influence?"

b. Read all the items listed under "Western Influence" from 1778 to 1819. Which of these do you think was the most important western influence? Explain.

c. Which items between 1778 and 1819 do you think influenced land use in Hawai'i? On what basis do you say this?

d. Which items between 1778 and 1819 do you think influenced the economics of Hawai'i? Why?

Activity 2: The Influence of the Missionaries, 1820-1839

a. Read the items listed under 1820-1839.

b. What were the occupations of the first American Calvinist missionaries? How do you think their occupations influenced their behavior in Hawai'i?

c. Read the items between 1820 and 1839 labeled "Religion." Which item do you feel was the most important? The least important? Give several reasons for your answers.

d. Read the items between 1820 and 1839 labeled "Education." What do you think were the attitudes of the Hawaiians toward education? Why do you think the missionaries were so interested in education?

e. What was the impact of the missionaries on education? On religion?

Activity 3: Who Came First?

Number the following people or groups in the order in which they influenced Hawai'i.

_____ a. Hiram Bingham

_____ b. Amos Starr Cooke

_____ c. The first Chinese laborers

_____ d. The first Filipino laborers

_____ e. Father Damien

_____ f. The first Japanese laborers

_____ g. George Vancouver

_____ h. John and Aiko Reineke

_____ i. Duke Kahanamoku

_____ j. Booga Booga

Activity 4: What Came First?

_____ a. The first hotel

_____ b. The breaking of the *kapu* system

_____ c. The first major plantation strike

_____ d. The building of Aloha Tower

_____ e. The communist scare

_____ f. The coming of the first missionaries

_____ g. The introduction of cattle

_____ h. The Massie case

_____ i. The voyage of the *Hōkūle'a*

_____ j. The Chinatown fire

Activity 5: True or False

_____ a. The missionaries caused the abolition of the *kapu* system.

_____ b. Western diseases were responsible for the declining Hawaiian population in the early nineteenth century.

_____ c. Hawaiian women were never allowed to participate in important government affairs before 1900.

_____ d. The first schools were started by American merchants.

_____ e. Only foreigners were allowed to attend the first schools.

_____ f. The Chinese were first brought to Hawai'i in the 1850s.

_____ g. Father Damien was one of the first missionaries in Hawai'i.

_____ h. Immigration to Hawai'i around 1900 was part of a larger worldwide immigration movement.

_____ i. Communists influenced plantation workers in the early 1900s.

_____ j. The heroism of Asian Americans in World War II helped their social positions after the war.

_____ k. Tourism grew dramatically in the 1960s and 1970s.

_____ l. *The Hawaii Observer* was an early supporter of statehood.

_____ m. In the 1970s citizens showed little interest in public affairs.

_____ n. The *Hōkūle'a* sailed to San Francisco using ancient Hawaiian navigation techniques.

_____ o. The Hawaiian Renaissance refers to a University of Hawai'i project.

Activity 6: The Massie Case

One of the most controversial events in the social history of Hawai'i was the Massie case of 1931. Racial prejudices were intensified.

The purpose of this activity is to understand what may have contributed to racial and ethnic conflicts such as the Massie case.

a. Read pages 133-139 in Unit IV: Towards Greater Equality. Do the activities on page 139. This should provide some background on the Massie case.

b. Read the social history outline between 1900 and 1959. What items can you find which might have contributed to racial conflicts? What items can you find which might have reduced conflicts? Make a list of both.

c. Since social history is influenced by what happens in land use, government, and economics, it is important to also review these areas for clues to important social events. Read the land use outline between 1900 and 1950. Are there any items which you think might have contributed to racial conflict? Any items which might have reduced it? Add these to your lists.

d. Do the same thing with the government outline between 1900 and 1950.

e. Finally, review the economic outline in the same manner, adding to your lists as appropriate.

f. Review your lists. Choose one statement below that you can agree with, and write an essay defending it.

   a. The Massie case was an isolated incident. There is no other evidence of ethnic conflicts in Hawai'i's history.

   OR

   b. The Massie case was just one example of many ethnic conflicts in Hawai'i.

   OR

   c. The primary cause of ethnic conflict is economic.

   OR

   d. Write your own statement and defend it.

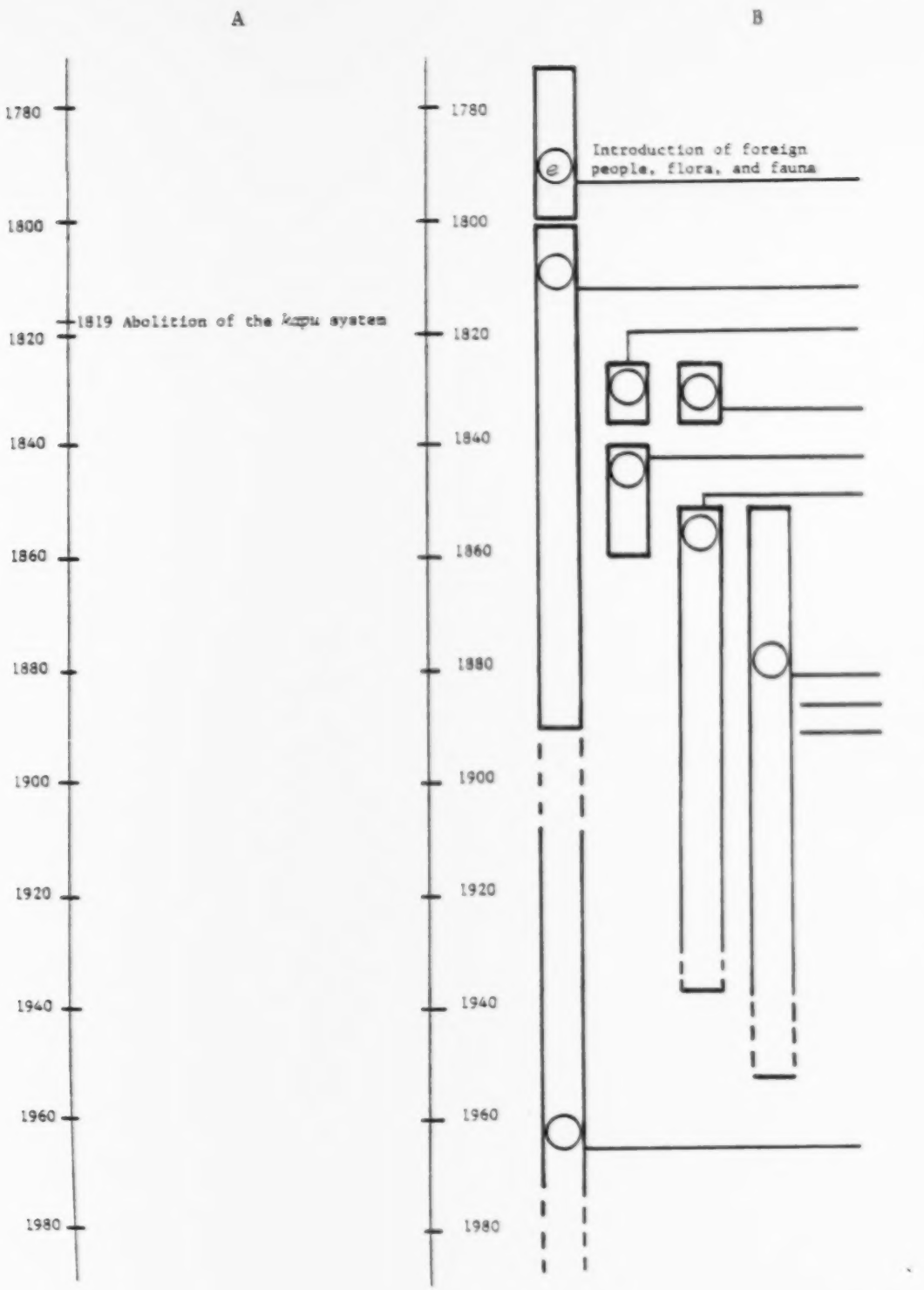
Activity 7: Social History Time Line

A. Plot and label the following events.

a. Massie case
b. Arrival of first missionaries
c. Arrival of first westerners
d. Arrival of first Chinese laborers
e. Arrival of first Japanese laborers
f. Arrival of first Filipino laborers
g. Arrival of first Portuguese laborers
h. Abolition of *kapu* system
i. Voyage of *Hōkūle'a*
j. Chinatown fire
k. First major plantation strike
l. Death of Father Damien

B. Label the correct historical periods.

a. Americanization of new citizens
b. Growth of towns and western culture
c. Missionary education experiments
d. Religious law making
e. Introduction of foreign people, flora, and fauna
f. Transfer of power to foreigners
g. Immigration of plantation laborers
h. Exploitation of plantation laborers


A
B
1780
1800
1819 Abolition of the kapu system
1820
1840
1860
1880
1900
1920
1940
1960
1980
Introduction of foreign people, flora, and fauna

Looking at Population Statistics

Activity

This activity shows you why it is important to look at data with a discerning eye.

Population statistics--the collection, organization, and interpretation of numbers relating to people of a given area--can give us useful information about a group of people. For example, look at the tables, "Population by Islands" and "Resident Population: Military and Civilian, 1900-1981."

1. What kinds of information do they give you?

While charts and tables give us useful information, we must be careful about accepting the data uncritically. For example, look at the same two tables mentioned above.

2. What differences can you find between the two?
3. How do you account for these differences?

Another element to be aware of is the categories chosen by the people doing the studies. The two tables below show information from two surveys done by the State Health Department.

4. What differences can you find between them?
5. How do these differences affect the way one might look at the numbers and percentages?
6. Which survey do you think more accurately depicts the population of Hawai'i? Why?

For further discussion on gathering population data, see the reading, "Lands of Our Fathers."

POPULATION BY ETHNIC STOCK: 1977

Ethnic Stock	Number	Percent
All Groups	860,325	100.0
Unmixed	639,237	74.3
Caucasian	236,585	27.5
Japanese	223,173	25.9
Chinese	41,630	4.6
Filipino	91,399	10.7
Hawaiian	9,449	1.1
Korean	10,136	1.2
Negro	7,890	0.9
Puerto Rican	4,695	0.5
Samoan	5,648	0.7
Other unmixed and unknown	8,632	1.0
Mixed	221,087	25.7
Part-Hawaiian	136,443	15.9
Non-Hawaiian	84,644	9.8

POPULATION BY ETHNIC STOCK: 1980

Ethnic Stock	Number	Percent
All Groups	965,000	100.0
Black	18,552	1.9
Caucasian[1]	283,099	29.3
Chinese	60,004	6.2
Filipino	137,135	14.2
Hawaiian and Part-Hawaiian	176,713	18.3
Japanese	240,817	25.0
Korean	16,611	1.7
Samoan	12,924	1.3
Other	19,145	2.0

1. Includes Puerto Ricans.

Population Estimates of Hawai'i: 1778-1836

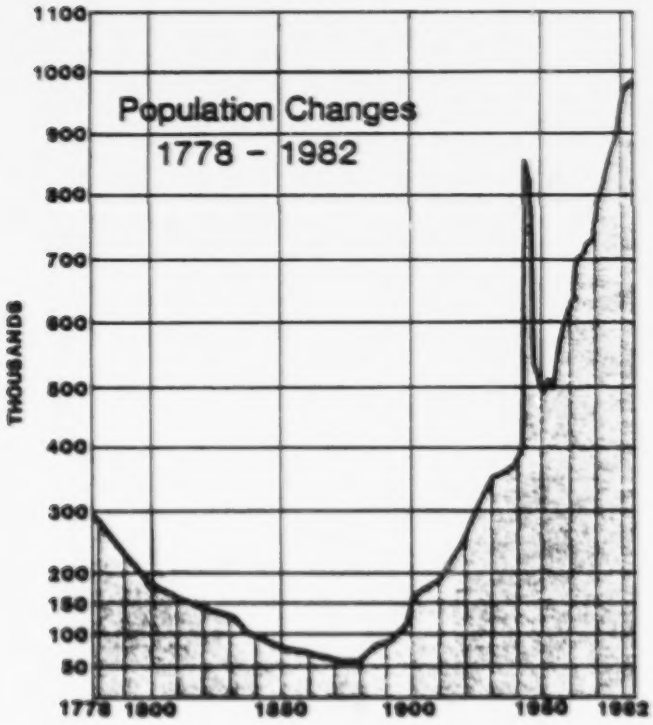
Year	Authority[1]	Estimated Population
1778-79[2]	Captain James King, 1779	400,000
	Master William Bligh, 1779	242,200
	Captain George Dixon, 1787	200,000
	Captain V. M. Golovin, 1818	200,000
	James Jarves, 1843	300,000
	Sir Peter Buck, 1951	100,000-150,000
1796	Romanzo Adams, c. 1935	270,000-280,000
1800	Robert Schmitt, 1971	165,000-195,000
1803-04	Romanzo Adams, c. 1935	266,000-280,000
1804-05	Romanzo Adams, c. 1935	152,000-154,000
1819	Romanzo Adams, c. 1935	144,000-145,000
1823	James Jarves, 1843	142,050
	Romanzo Adams, c. 1935	134,925
	Robert Schmitt, 1971	135,000-145,000
1831-32	Census[3]	130,313
	Romanzo Adams, c. 1935	124,449
1835-36	Census[4]	108,568

1. With year in which estimate was actually prepared or first published.
2. In view of the wide range of opinions cited, most modern authorities have compromised on a 1778-79 population total of 300,000.

3,4. Censuses taken by the missionaries.

Question

Can you think of reasons why there is such a wide difference of opinions about the population in 1778-79?



Population of Hawai'i

Year	Population	Year	Population
1850	84,165	1900	154,001
1853	73,138	1910	191,874
1860	69,800	1920	255,881
1866	62,959	1930	368,300
1872	56,897	1940	422,770
1878	57,985	1950	499,794
1884	80,578	1960	632,772
1890	89,990	1970	769,913
1896	109,020	1980	964,691
		1982	994,000

Note: 1850 to 1896 censuses taken by the Hawaiian Government.
1900 to 1980 censuses taken by the U.S. Bureau of the Census.
1982 census reported by Robert Schmitt, State Statistician.

Population by Ethnicity: 1778-1884

	1778	1823	1832	1836	1850	1853	1860	1866	1872	1878	1884
Hawaiians	300,000	134,750	124,049	107,354	82,035	70,036	65,647	57,125	49,044	44,088	40,014
Part-Hawaiians					558	983	1,337	1,640	2,487	3,420	4,218
Non-Hawaiians		175	400	600	1,572						
Total Caucasians						1,688	1,900	2,400	2,944	3,748	16,579
Portuguese						87	85	90	424	486	9,967
Puerto Ricans											
Spaniards											
Other Caucasians						1,601	1,815	2,310	2,520	3,262	6,612
Chinese						364	816	1,306	2,038	6,045	18,254
Japanese											116
Blacks											
Koreans											
Filipinos											
American Indians											
Aleuts											
Asian Indians											
Eskimos											
Guamanians											
Samoans											
Vietnamese											
Others						67	100	488	384	684	1,397
TOTALS[1]	300,000	134,925	124,449	107,954	84,165	73,138	69,800	62,959	56,897	57,985	80,578

1. Totals of population figures are slightly different from those found in other tables in this book because the data are from different sources. (See reading, "Looking at Population Statistics.")

Questions

1. Only one ethnic group has decreased in population from 1778 to 1960. Which group is it?

2. From 1970 to 1980, "others" have increased by 30,437, making it the third-fastest growing group in the state for that decade. Who do you think is included in this group?

3. According to the 1980 census, what are the five largest ethnic groups in Hawai'i? List them from largest to smallest.

Population by Ethnicity: 1890-1980

1890	1896	1900	1910	1920	1930	1940	1950	1960	1970[1]	1980	
34,436	31,019	29,799	26,041	23,723	22,636	14,375	12,245	11,294	71,274[2]	115,500	Hawaiians
6,186	8,485	7,857	12,506	18,027	28,224	49,935	73,845	91,109			Part-Hawaiians
											Non-Hawaiians
18,939	22,438	28,819	44,048	54,742	80,373	112,087	124,344	202,230	301,429	318,770	Total Caucasians
12,719	15,191	18,272	22,301	27,002	27,588						Portuguese
			4,890	5,602	6,671	8,296	9,551				Puerto Ricans
			1,990	2,430	1,219						Spaniards
6,220	7,247	10,547	14,867	19,708	44,895	103,791	114,793				Other Caucasians
16,752	21,616	25,767	21,674	23,507	27,179	28,774	32,376	38,197	52,375	56,285	Chinese
12,610	24,407	61,111	79,675	109,274	139,631	157,905	184,598	203,455	217,669	239,748	Japanese
		233	695	348	563	255	2,651	4,943	7,517	17,364	Blacks
			4,533	4,950	6,461	6,851	7,030		9,625	17,962	Koreans
			2,361	21,031	63,052	52,569	61,062	69,070	95,354	133,940	Filipinos
								472	1,216	2,655	American Indians
										45	Aleuts
										604	Asian Indians
										68	Eskimos
										1,677	Guamanians
										14,073	Samoans
										3,463	Vietnamese
1,067	1,055	415	376	310	217	579	1,618	12,002	12,100	42,537	Others
89,990	109,020	154,001	191,909	255,912	368,336	423,330	499,769	632,772	768,559	964,691	TOTALS

1. The 1970 census classified race by self-identification of respondents. This method of self-identification resulted in data that were not comparable to census data of earlier years.
2. From 1970, full-blooded Hawaiians were no longer counted by the U.S. Bureau of the Census as a separate group but were included as part-Hawaiians. Their number is estimated to be between 1,000 and 10,000.

Activity

The class can make line graphs similar to "Population Changes 1778-1982" for the five largest ethnic groups in the state.

1. The teacher will divide your class into groups of five students.
2. Identify the five largest ethnic groups in 1920. (Combine Hawaiians and part-Hawaiians and use the total Caucasian figure for Caucasians rather than the subgroups.)
3. One student in each group is to choose one of the ethnic groups and graph the population changes for that group from 1920 to 1980.
4. Compare your graphs. Are there any similarities? Are there any differences?
5. Have the teacher post your graphs on the bulletin board.

Listen, baby—You're really mixed up

bob krauss

There's an old saying that everybody talks about race relations but very few do anything about it. This is not true in Hawai'i.

A lot of people here are doing something about it. They keep making babies of mixed race.

At last, the inevitable has happened. State Statistician Robert C. Schmitt announced yesterday that more babies of mixed race are born in Hawai'i than those of unmixed race.

He said no other state in the nation comes even remotely close to matching Hawai'i's percentage of racially mixed babies.

To commemorate this historic occasion, he has prepared a table for next year's State Data Book which documents the evolution of Hawai'i's increasingly mixed-up population.

In 1953, for example, 63.3 percent of the babies born here were racially unmixed. Only a third, 33.3 percent, were mixed. Three-point-four percent weren't certain.

By 1970, the percentage of racially unmixed babies being born had dropped to 53.1 while the percentage of mixed babies rose to 41.3. The uncertains accounted for 5.6 percent.

Schmitt said the percentage of ethnically mixed babies finally overtook the percentage of unmixed babies in 1979, 47.2 to 46.1 with 6.7 uncertain.

The percentage is still climbing. In 1981, the last year for which Schmitt has figures, the percentage of racially mixed babies totalled 49, unmixed babies 43.8, with 7.1 uncertain.

Think what this means!

Not only is Hawai'i developing a new racially mixed population but we are driving the Census Bureau batty trying to keep up with it.

You thought there are only four races: Caucasian, Asian, Negroid and Indian. Right?

Wrong! The census takers now list 11: Caucasian, Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Filipino, Hawaiian, Part-Hawaiian, Samoan, Puerto Rican, Negro and Other.

This means that a German-English baby is of unmixed race. However, a Hawaiian-Tahitian baby is of mixed race because the Tahitians are lumped into Other.

Also, a Chinese-Japanese baby is of mixed race, even though both are Oriental, because the classification says so.

Schmitt said that the definition of race has gotten so fuzzy that census takers now classify people according to local usage. That leads to additional complications.

For example, here's how the census takers determine the race of someone who is Hawaiian-Chinese-Portuguese-Irish. (Don't go away. This will take a while.)

1. If the census taker asks what race you are and you say, "Irish," that's what he'll make you.

2. If you answer that you are racially mixed and ask him, "What does that make me?" he'll put down the race of your mother which could make you Portuguese. (Ten years ago he would have put down the race of your father which could have made you Chinese.)

3. If you receive a census questionnaire in the mail, you will be

classified by the first race you put down. This could make you Hawaiian.

That's just the beginning.

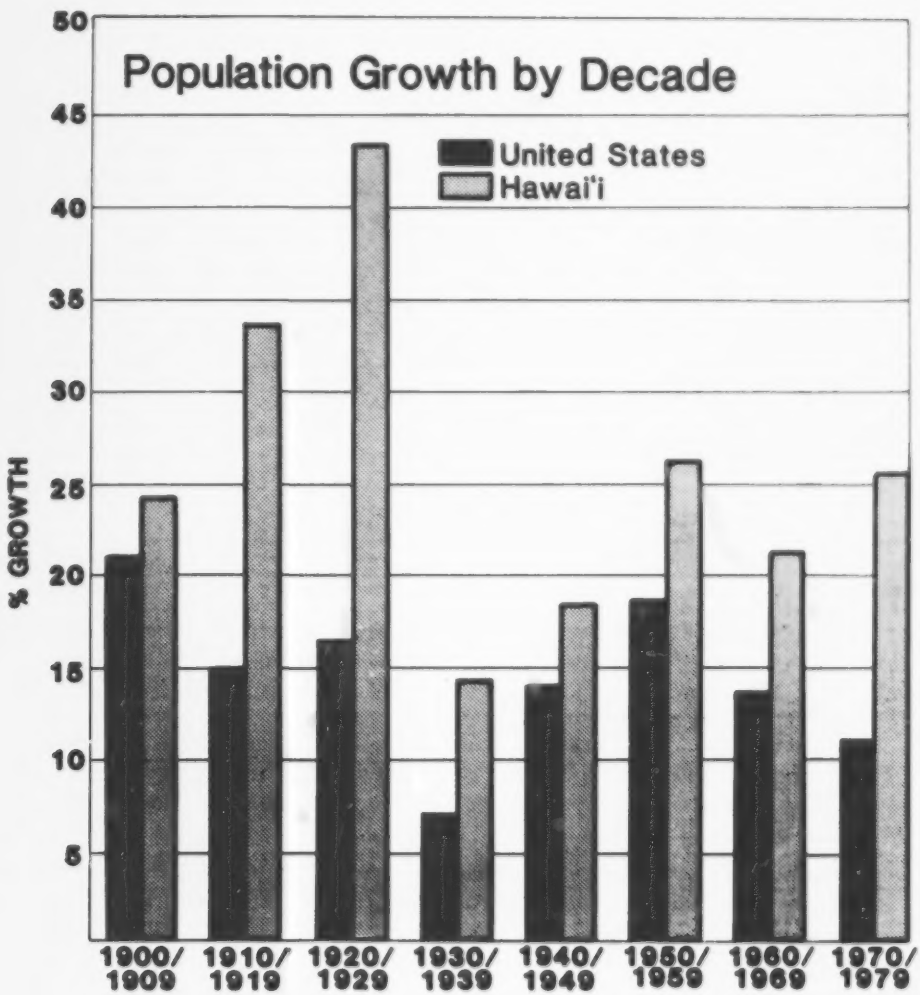
Trying to decide who's part-Hawaiian and who's part-something-else is bad enough. Trying to decide who's Puerto Rican is impossible. Before 1940 Puerto Ricans were classified as sub-Caucasians.

In 1940, Spaniards were lumped in with Puerto Ricans. This changed in 1960 when Puerto Ricans jumped from sub-Caucasian to being a separate race. But in 1980 they quit being a race entirely and are now classified as black or white.

"You can see what a mess we're in," said Schmitt.

He did offer one consolation. "If you think you are confused, you should be a statistician," he said.

--*The Honolulu Advertiser*
June 15, 1983



Resident Population: Military and Civilian 1900-1981

Year as of July 1	Total Resident Population[1]	Armed Forces	Civilian[2]	Year as of July 1	Total Resident Population[1]	Armed Forces	Civilian[2]
1900	154,193	293	153,900	1941	459,335	48,187	411,148
1901	155,547	347	155,200	1942	582,026	135,907	446,119
1902	157,436	336	157,100	1943	649,650	199,832	449,818
1903	162,634	334	162,300	1944	858,945	406,811	452,134
1904	167,976	376	167,600	1945	814,601	354,734	459,867
1905	166,728	328	166,400	1946	545,439	65,731	479,708
1906	166,895	495	166,400	1947	526,238	38,673	487,565
1907	174,740	540	174,200	1948	517,013	32,849	484,164
1908	182,662	662	182,000	1949	511,039	30,681	480,358
1909	188,316	1,716	186,600	1950	497,980	20,063	477,917
1910	193,225	1,925	191,300	1951	514,256	44,188	470,068
1911	196,735	2,835	193,900	1952	517,378	57,260	460,118
1912	207,276	4,421	202,855	1953	509,947	47,215	462,732
1913	218,417	7,090	211,327	1954	505,461	37,762	467,699
1914	226,868	8,545	218,323	1955	533,292	56,807	482,485
1915	231,515	9,820	221,695	1956	558,575	57,246	501,329
1916	237,538	8,852	228,686	1957	584,466	59,581	524,885
1917	250,138	13,249	236,889	1958	605,356	55,011	550,345
1918	254,465	11,050	243,415	1959	622,087	56,596	565,491
1919	260,408	8,851	251,557	1960	641,520	59,183	582,337
1920	260,726	6,652	254,074	1961	658,684	60,812	597,872
1921	271,790	9,597	262,193	1962	683,513	78,977	604,536
1922	284,290	12,542	271,748	1963	682,241	59,562	622,679
1923	299,507	17,014	282,493	1964	699,858	73,174	626,684
1924	308,912	15,925	292,987	1965	703,804	53,381	650,423
1925	325,960	17,874	308,086	1966	710,325	54,058	656,267
1926	331,126	17,709	313,417	1967	722,528	55,981	666,547
1927	337,294	17,169	320,125	1968	734,456	57,013	677,443
1928	351,382	17,598	333,784	1969	750,228	48,474	701,754
1929	360,406	17,862	342,544	1970	776,000	53,200	722,800
1930	367,880	18,908	348,972	1971	801,000	50,800	750,200
1931	377,530	18,845	358,685	1972	828,000	52,000	776,000
1932	385,013	18,526	366,487	1973	851,000	58,100	792,900
1933	383,973	19,228	364,745	1974	867,000	57,500	809,500
1934	384,331	18,644	365,687	1975	884,000	58,900	825,100
1935	389,562	22,005	367,557	1976	902,000	57,800	844,200
1936	396,072	25,512	370,560	1977	916,000	56,500	859,500
1937	400,816	24,952	375,864	1978	929,000	58,300	870,700
1938	409,960	27,839	382,121	1979	950,000	57,900	892,100
1939	415,705	27,163	388,542	1980	969,000	57,900	911,100
1940	427,884	30,041	397,843	1981	981,000	56,600	924,400

1. The de facto population (the actual number of people present, including tourists)--which is not shown in this table--reached 1 million in 1978 and continues to increase.
2. Includes military dependents.

Questions

1. Looking at the table above, what can you say about the changes in the military population and in the total resident population? First skim the figures to get an overall picture, then use a calculator for a more precise response.

2. How do you account for these changes?

Resident Population: Military and Civilian 1950-1980

(Excludes visitors present but includes residents temporarily absent.)

Year as of July 1	Total Resident Population	Armed Forces	Civilian Population		
			All Civilians	Military Dependents	Non-Military Dependents
1950	507,321	29,404	477,917	38,325	439,592
1960	635,218	52,881	582,337	60,057	522,280
1970	776,000	53,200	722,800	57,800	665,000
1980	969,000	57,900	911,100	64,100	847,000

Questions

	1950	1960	1970	1980
1. How many people did the military add to Hawai'i in the years indicated?	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. What percentage of the total resident population are the figures given in question #1?	_____	_____	_____	_____

3. Looking at the figures in the chart above and in this activity, what observations can you make?

4. Do you think members of the armed forces and their dependents make up a small or large percentage of the state population?

Population by Islands

Year	Total	Hawai'i	Kaho'olawe	Maui	Lāna'i	Moloka'i	O'ahu[1]	Kaua'i	Ni'ihau
1831-32	130,313	45,792	80	35,062	1,600	6,000	29,755	10,977	1,047
1835-36	108,579	39,364	80	24,199	1,200	6,000	27,809	8,934	993
1850	84,165	25,864	--	21,047	604	3,540	25,440	6,956	714
1853	73,138	24,450	--	17,574	600	3,607	19,126	6,991	790
1860	69,800	21,481	--	16,400	646	2,864	21,275	6,487	647
1866	62,959	19,808	--	14,035	394	2,299	19,799	6,299	325
1872	56,897	16,001	--	12,334	348	2,349	20,671	4,961	233
1878	57,985	17,034	--	12,109	214	2,581	20,236	5,634	177
1884	80,578	24,991	--	15,970	2,614		28,068	8,935	
1890	89,990	26,754	--	17,357	2,826		31,194	11,859	
1896	109,020	33,285	--	17,726	105	2,307	40,205	15,228	164
1900	154,001	46,843	--	25,416		2,504	58,504	20,562	172
1910	191,874	55,382	2	28,623	131	1,791	81,993	23,744	208
1920	255,881	64,895	3	36,080	185	1,784	123,496	29,247	191
1930	368,300	73,325	2	48,756	2,356	5,032	202,887	35,806	136
1940	422,770	73,276	1	46,919	3,720	5,340	257,696	35,636	182
1950	499,794	68,350	--	40,103	3,136	5,280	353,020	29,683	222
1960	632,772	61,332	--	35,717	2,115	5,023	500,409	27,922	254
1970	769,913	63,468	--	38,691	2,204	5,261	630,528	29,524	237
1980	964,691	92,053	--	62,823	2,119	6,049	762,565	38,856	226

1. Includes outlying islands legally part of the City and County of Honolulu: Palmyra (32 in 1940, uninhabited in 1950, and detached in 1959) and the Northwestern Islands from Nihoa to Kure but excluding Midway (14 in 1950, 15 in 1960, and 31 in 1970 and 1980).

2,3. Missionary censuses for these years included only Hawai'i, Maui, Kaua'i, O'ahu and Ni'ihau. Kaho'olawe, Lāna'i, and Moloka'i are only estimates.

Questions

1. Comparing 1831-1832 and 1980 figures, the greatest population <u>increase</u> occurred on which island? Comparing the same years, which islands show a <u>decrease</u> in population?

2. On which island did the population remain relatively unchanged in the years 1831-1832 and 1980?

Lands of Our Fathers

New Americans are still pouring in by the millions, and the natives are migrating to the South and West.

The 1970s were the Decade of the Immigrant: for three years in a row—1977, 1978 and 1979—the numbers admitted to the United States surpassed those for any year since 1924. In particular, it was the Decade of the Asian. By the thousands, Asians and Pacific Islanders poured in—refugees from Indochina, medical students from the Philippines, families from the Fiji Islands and Taiwan. Most of them headed to the West. And so did many U.S.-born Americans. It was also the Decade of the Sun Belt, an interregional migration that sent millions of Northerners west and south in search of sun, jobs and lower heating bills. And for the first time in recent history, the total population in areas the Census Bureau classifies as "metropolitan" grew more slowly than communities beyond the outer limits of the suburban sprawl.

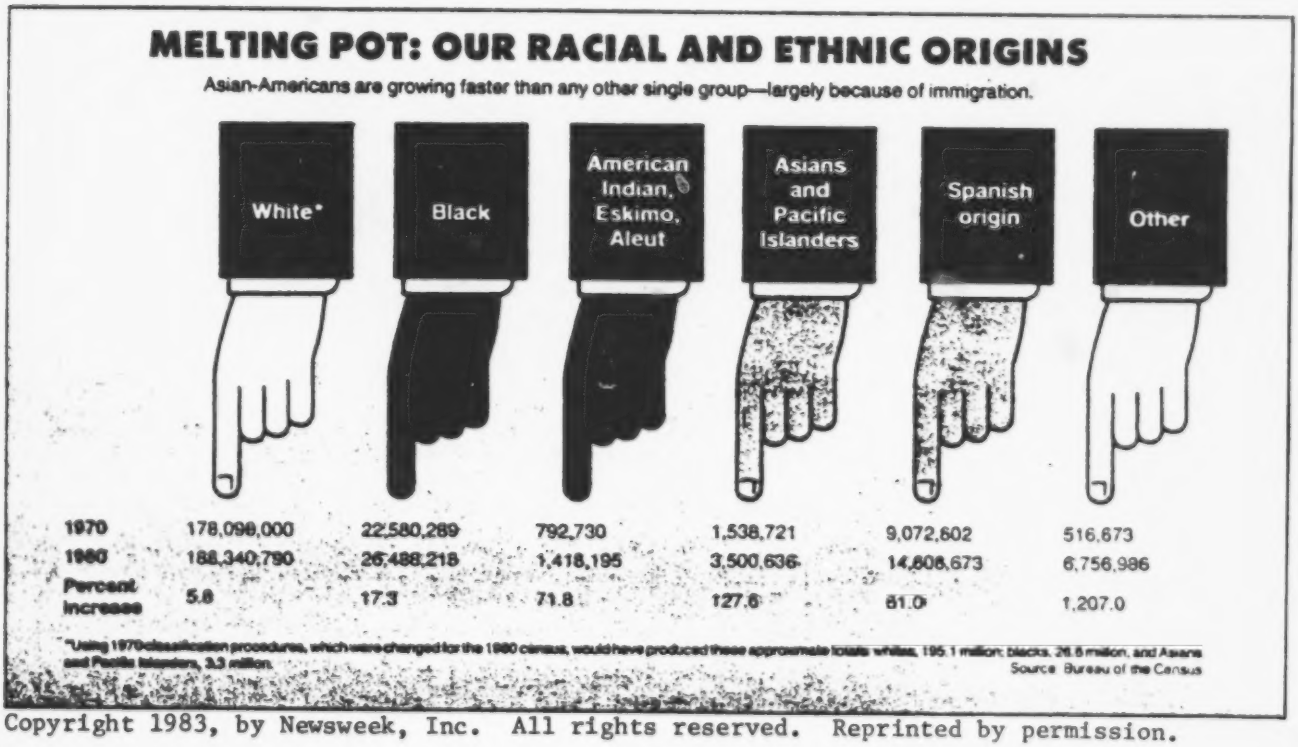
America's data on immigration, ethnic makeup and migration must be approached with care. For one thing, in an effort to develop more accurate readings on the patterns, the Census Bureau periodically changes some of its collection and reporting techniques. Thus, for example, although the 1980 census shows a 71.8 percent increase in the American Indian population since 1970—with native Americans exceeding the 1 million mark for the first time—that statistic says more about the bureau's success in enlisting the cooperation of Indian respondents than it does about native American fertility. For another, the bureau itself makes bloopers; for 1980, officials misplaced the boundaries for Phoenix, Ariz., and, until the error was corrected, a large segment of the city's population was missing. Finally, there is the matter of illegal immigrants. Despite the bureau's best efforts to assure them that their answers will be kept confidential, many do their level best not to be counted at all.

> Childless college graduates in their 20s are more likely to move from place to place than any other group. Residents of Pennsylvania are least likely to move.

In the past, the Census Bureau has acquired information about ancestry by asking for the country of birth of the respondent's mother or father. Now, in an attempt to get beyond the first or second generation, th bureau asks: "What is your ancestry?" Census officials admit that the rather vaguely worded question has produced mixed results. Polish- and Italian-Americans haven't had much trouble providing an answer, but many blacks and native Americans have been understandably stuck.

Even so, the new question has yielded some intriguing information about how Americans view their roots. Nearly 82.7 percent have reported at least one specific ancestry. German (28.8 percent), Irish (24 percent) and English (22.3 percent) were the most commonly named. Of the 54 percent who reported a single ancestry, 17 million reported German, 15 million listed Afro-American or African and 12 million said English. The proportion of multiple-origin responses varied considerably by ancestry group. Of those who reported Scottish forebears, for instance, 88.6 percent added at least one other ethnic strain, while only 7 percent of those who claimed Afro-American or African extraction also reported another. Younger people were more likely than their elders to report multiple ancestries: the median age of those who listed just one answer was 34.6, compared with 24.5 for the multiple reporters. And as if to confirm that the United States is the ultimate melting pot, 51.8 percent of U.S. natives with native parents reported multiple ancestry, while only 9.3 percent of the foreign-born did so.

The answers may be considerably different by the end of the next decade. Between July 30, 1969, and Sept. 30, 1979, the Immigration and Naturalization Service reports, 4.3 million immigrants were admitted to the United States. Comparing the origin of those who arrived in 1979 with those who


MELTING POT: OUR RACIAL AND ETHNIC ORIGINS
Asian-Americans are growing faster than any other single group—largely because of immigration.
White*
Black
American Indian, Eskimo, Aleut
Asians and Pacific Islanders
Spanish origin
Other
1970 178,098,000 22,580,289 792,730 1,538,721 9,072,602 516,673
1980 188,340,790 26,488,218 1,418,195 3,500,636 14,608,673 6,756,986
Percent increase 5.8 17.3 71.8 127.6 61.0 1,207.0
*Using 1970 classification procedures, which were changed for the 1980 census, would have produced these approximate totals: whites, 195.1 million; blacks, 26.5 million, and Asians and Pacific Islanders, 3.3 million.
Source: Bureau of the Census

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came in the mid-1960s, INS perceives some remarkable differences. There were 46.4 percent fewer immigrants from Europe, and there were 815.2 percent more Asians.

Between 1970 and 1980, the number of Asians and Pacific Islanders in the United States leaped from 1.5 million to 3.5 million. Koreans led the growth rate, increasing in number from 69,130 in 1970 to 354,529 in 1980—a rise of 412.8 percent. But other Asian groups also showed big gains. The Chinese population, with a growth of 85.3 percent, replaced the Japanese as the largest Asian group in the United States, with 806,027 members. Filipinos moved into second place, growing from 343,060 to 774,640 (up 125.8 percent). Although the Asian and Pacific-island groups became more geographically dispersed during the decade, they remain highly concentrated in the West: more than half of the Chinese live there, nearly three-quarters of the Filipinos and four of every five Japanese.

The West also claims the bulk of America's burgeoning Hispanic population, which grew by 61 percent during the 1970s—to 14.6 million. Demographers attribute the rise to a combination of immigration and high fertility rates among those already living in the United States. The largest single group of Hispanics was of Mexican origin (8.7 million or 59.8 percent of all Hispanics). Puerto Ricans follow, with 2 million—13.8 percent of the total—then Cubans, with 803,226 or 5.5 percent. The Mexican population is not only the biggest, but also the fastest growing: between 1970 and 1980, it almost doubled in size, growing by 92.8 percent. It has also begun to disperse from the Southwest: the proportion of Mexican-Americans who live there has fallen from 87 percent in 1970 to 83 percent in 1980. Puerto Ricans, too, are leaving their enclaves in New York; only 49 percent of them lived in New York State in 1980, compared with 64 percent in 1970. But the Cuban population is even more highly concentrated in Florida than it was 10 years ago. Nearly three out of every five Cubans live in the state now, compared with 46 percent in 1970.

Between 1977 and 1978, huge increases in the numbers of Vietnamese and Mexican immigrants accounted for 95 percent of the total rise in immigration.

The 1980 census asked, for the first time, if respondents spoke languages other than English at home. Fully 11 percent reported that they did, although the proportions varied widely from state to state: in Kentucky and Tennessee, for example, only 1.8 percent spoke something other than English, while 38 percent in New Mexico did so. By far the most common foreign language is Spanish (fully 36 percent of Miami's population—and 40 percent of San Antonio's—speak Spanish at home), and older Hispanics are far more likely than those between the ages of 5 and 17 to say that they don't speak English well or at all.

Meanwhile, the net movement out of the Northeast and North Central regions and into the South and West continued through the 1970s—and blacks, who had maintained a different pattern of migration in the 1960s, joined the herd. During the decade, the South's population grew by 12.5 million or, to view it another way, the region gained an average of 3,432 new people per day. The West grew by 8.3 million—an average gain of 2,279 each day. Growth was sluggish throughout the North Central region: only two states, Minnesota and Wisconsin, increased their population by more than 6 percent. Two Northeastern states actually lost population. New York's fell by 3.8 percent and Rhode Island's by .3 percent.

But Vermont—America's "most rural" state by Census Bureau definitions—grew faster than the U.S. population, and therein lies a clue to one of the census's most interesting findings. According to Census Bureau demographers Larry Long and Diana DeAre, the 1970s saw "a surge of growth outside of incorporated places . . . an unprecedented shift of population toward small urban clusters and rural territory."

Within metropolitan areas, population grew by 10 percent during the 1970s; in nonmetropolitan territory, the rate was 17.1 percent. By contrast, during the 1960s metro growth was 2.4 times the nonmetropolitan rate, and in the 1950s, metropolitan increase outpaced other areas by nearly four to one. Long and DeAre say that the national deconcentration trend is not a function of interregional migration—say, from metropolitan areas in the Northeast to nonmetro areas in the West. The unincorporated areas in the Northeast themselves gained 22.6 percent—twice the national growth rate. Americans, it appears, are moving back to the country.

Questions

Now that you have finished reading the article, "Land of Our Fathers," answer the following questions.

1. Between 1970 and 1980, the greatest number of immigrants to the United States came from what two areas?

2. What is the most common language, other than English, spoken in America today?

3. What are some of the difficulties mentioned in the article of collecting data on immigrants, ethnic makeup, and migration?

4. Can you think of other difficulties census takers in Hawai'i and on the mainland might have in collecting data?

This reading is an excerpt from a paper entitled "Immigration and Emigration in the Hawaiian Sugar Industry." It was presented to the Hawaiian Sugar Technologists Association in Honolulu on November 15, 1950.

The History of Immigration to Hawai'i

by Sanford L. Platt

It was recognized as early as 1850 that additional labor was required by Hawaiian sugar and rice plantations if they were to expand. The Kingdom recognized that it would be greatly benefited economically by the building up of these industries and took an active interest in the importation of labor.

To supervise and coordinate the importation of foreign labor, the Kingdom, in December, 1864, established a Board of Immigration, under the Minister of the Interior. Soon afterward a law was passed forbidding the introduction of laborers into the Kingdom without the express license of the Board of Immigration.

An example of the awareness of the government of the advantages to be gained by immigration is contained in the biennial report of the Honorable W. N. Armstrong, president of the Board of Immigration, dated March 31, 1882. In estimating that planters needed some 4,000 additional laborers, he writes: "Four thousand men, with three thousand women and four thousand children would make eleven thousand persons, whose transportation would cost about $800,000. The cost of transporting men would cost $350,000. The cost of transporting the women and children would be about $450,000. Whether a part of this amount should be imposed on the employers is a serious question.

The argument for imposing the expense of the women and children on the government is a very strong one. Every immigrant becomes a taxpayer. He and his family are creators of wealth. If the Portuguese immigrants now entering the Kingdom shall amass property in a similar way (to some 155 Portuguese residing in Honolulu at the time), it will be a most profitable experiment for the government to pay the entire passages of all immigrants."

In 1882, the Planters' Labor and Supply Company was organized and a charter granted by the government. This Company, out of which grew the Hawai'i Sugar Planters Association (HSPA), collaborated closely with the Board of Immigration, "especially in the subject of transportation and in gathering information on the subject of labor."

Chinese

As early as 1802, some Chinese came to the Islands in vessels owned by Kamehameha the Great. One brought a stone sugar mill and attempted to establish a plantation on Lāna'i. The number of Chinese in the Islands slowly increased until 1851, when the Royal Hawaiian Agricultural Society made the first recorded efforts toward the organized recruitment of foreign labor.

The Society employed a Captain Cass of the bark *Thetis* to bring in 180 Chinese coolies under

special contract. For their passage and advanced wages, they were engaged at $3 per month in addition to food, clothing, housing, and medical attention. This group arrived in the Kingdom on January 3, 1852. The Society was so gratified with the results of the experiment that it was repeated again and again.

With the negotiation of a Reciprocity Treaty between the United States and the Kingdom of Hawai'i in 1876, tremendous impetus was provided to local industry. The demand for labor was greatly increased. Professor W. D. Alexander writes that "during the last five months of 1880, 2,239 immigrants arrived, and the next spring five tramp steamers came from China in quick succession, bringing nearly 700 passengers apiece. The Hawaiian Government was obliged to telegraph Hong Kong to stop the invasion."

In 1883, Chinese immigration was suddenly resumed and, in a period of twenty days, five steamers arrived from Hong Kong bringing 2,352 passengers; following these the next month were 1,100 more, with news that an additional several thousand were ready to embark.

In 1892, an act was passed which authorized the Minister of Foreign Affairs to issue permits to enter the Republic of a limited number of Chinese laborers under conditions binding them not to engage in any other occupation while here and to leave this country as soon as they ceased to follow their vocation as agricultural laborers or domestic servants.

South Sea Islanders

China provided the best source of labor between the years 1852-1885; but the Hawaiian Government very early recognized the desirability of bringing in labor of races cognate to the Hawaiians. In 1868 an act was passed authorizing the Board of Immigration to bring in Polynesians of both sexes and to bind them out to service under contract. Accordingly, the following year Captain English was sent in command of the *Mauna Loa* on a cruise to the South, returning with 84 Manahikis from Rierson's Island and Humphrey's Island. The following September, Captain English was sent again and brought back 42 Bukabukas from Danger Island. These last people turned out to be very unsatisfactory and most of them were sent home. But the efforts to introduce Polynesian laborers persisted and in 1877, Captain Mist made trips to Micronesia, the New Hebrides, Fiji, and New Zealand. Professor Alexander writes, "During 1878 and the following six years, nearly 2,000 Polynesians, mostly from the Marianas, and with a sprinkling of black Melanesian cannibals, were introduced into this country. It was a costly experiment. Neither as laborers or citizens did they give satisfactory results and nearly all of them have returned to their homes."

The South Sea Islanders were not adaptable to plantation conditions and the government of the Kingdom recognized that special assistance for them was required. Therefore, in 1880, Mr. H. Bingham was appointed "Protector of the South Sea Islanders." It was largely through his efforts that these people were returned to their homes. In one of his annual reports he writes, "The gov-

ernment has done its duty. Ten companies, numbering about 900, have been returned."

Of the people of the New Hebrides the Honorable W. N. Armstrong, president of the Board of Immigration, writes in his biennial report dated March 31, 1882: "These made excellent laborers, but the conditions under which they are usually obtained, make it impossible for the Board to make further efforts in this direction. These people are still savages, and their islands cannot be approached with safety. There is much reason to believe that kidnapping is constantly practiced in securing them. If only legitimate means were resorted to, few could be obtained."

Many were the plans which were conceived to augment the labor supply. As an example, Kamehameha III endeavored to obtain permission from the British government to move all the inhabitants from Pitcairn's Island [in the Pacific] to Hawai'i, to be settled as tenants on the crown lands. This project failed, however, because the British government would never allow them to transfer their allegiance and become Hawaiian subjects.

III

Portuguese

Efforts were also made to increase the number of Caucasians in the Islands. The census of 1872 shows some 385 Portuguese, nearly all of whom had been sailors on whalers. These people had fitted into the community and were considered desirable citizens.

Toward the end of 1876, a local man, Señor J. Perreira (Jason Perry) who was considered the consular agent for Portugal, advanced a plan for procuring immigrants from Madeira. Government officials became interested and wrote to Dr. W. Hillenbrand, a former resident of Honolulu who happened to be staying in Madeira, and through his efforts the first recruited group of Portuguese, numbering 180 persons, arrived from Funchal, Madeira, on September 30, 1978. The second group of 419 arrived in August of 1879. The Honorable A. Marques writes in the *Hawaiian Annual* of 1911, that "between 1878 and 1899 total Portuguese immigration amounted to 12,780 including 5,362 men, 2,486 women, and 4,930 children."

Norwegians

In the year 1880, the Board of Immigration agreed to assist the mission of Captain L'Orange to Norway to procure immigrants by paying half the passage of women and the full passage of children under 12 years of age. Two groups of 392 and 223 arrived in February and May of 1881.

Germans

In November, 1880, Hackfeld & Company were authorized to procure immigrants from Germany on the same terms granted the Norwegians. On June 18, 1881, 124 passengers arrived from Bremen for Līhu'e Plantation. In October, 1882, 183 arrived, and in 1883, 595 more were imported. The records reveal that slightly in excess of 1,000 Germans came in between 1881 and 1885.

Japanese

The second major source of labor, Japan, was opened as a result of successful negotiations carried on between the Hawaiian and Japanese governments in 1884, at which time consent was finally obtained from Japan for the immigration of its subjects to these Islands under certain conditions. The first company, numbering 956, arrived on the *City of Tokyo* on February 9, 1885. An earlier attempt had been made to obtain the permission of the Japanese government for the immigration of Japanese labor. Mr. Eugene Van Reed, representative of the Hawaiian government in Tokyo, obtained clearance to forward 350 persons in 1868. Due to a change in government, the permission was cancelled. However, 148 persons were already aboard the vessel and these were introduced into Hawai'i in that year.

The confusion caused by the departure of these immigrants and the reports of misrepresentation and mistreatment which were circulated in Japan by a number of the laborers were probably responsible for the closing of Japan to emigration for the sixteen years between 1868-1884. Despite many difficulties between the two governments, the immigration of Japanese reached unprecedented proportions in the next few years and continued until 1908, when the Emigration Bureau of Japan announced a new policy prohibiting the emigration of Japanese to Hawai'i, the United States, Canada, and Central and South America.

Puerto Ricans and Blacks

Between 1900 and 1909 efforts continued to interest non-Asiatics in plantation work in the Islands. Puerto Ricans first arrived on December 23, 1900. Ten additional groups arrived in the next several years. In 1901, some 200 Tennessee Negroes were brought in, mostly for the Maui plantations.

Molokan Russians

Mr. T. G. Thrum writes in the *Hawaiian Annual* of 1908 that, "through the philanthropic efforts of Mr. Jas. B. Castle there arrived on February 19, 1906, a colony of the Molokan sect of Russians from Los Angeles, comprising 100 men, women and children for settlement on the Keālia Plantation, Kaua'i." This experiment was termed an expensive error. Within six months most of the Molokans had returned to California.

Koreans

Immigration from Japan, which had been providing the great majority of the labor for a number of years, was stopped in 1904, due to the Russo-Japan War. To fill this void, the government looked toward Korea. In June, 1903, there were but 505 Koreans in the Territory. In the next biennium this number had increased to approximately 7,000. Most plantations found Koreans not as adaptable to plantation conditions as were the Japanese, and at the close of hostilities in Japan, the immigration of Koreans was discontinued.

Portuguese and Spanish

In 1905, the Territorial Government created a new Board of Immigration and immediately work was started in the introduction of non-Asiatic laborers. As a result of these efforts late in 1906, and early in 1907, there arrived in the Territory some 5,000 Portuguese and Spanish immigrants from Azores, Madeira, and South Spain. These people were not brought under contract and were perfectly free to accept any occupation as laborers or to take up lands or to do other work which they desired. Small groups of Spaniards continued to immigrate to the Territory until 1913.

By 1908, the immigration of Chinese, Japanese, and Koreans had been stopped either by law or by mutual agreement between the United States and Japan; the Chinese were becoming too old for plantation work and many of the younger generation were leaving the plantations to engage in other pursuits. The Koreans had not worked out well. The Japanese were leaving the Territory at the rate of about 200 a month, many to return to their homeland, but the greater number left Hawai'i for the mainland of the United States and Canada. The railroads and other mainland industrial enterprises maintained recruiting agents here to induce local labor to accept jobs with them. This practice was so prevalent that, as one authority writes, "during the years 1904, 1905, and 1906, it became an impossibility for the regular steamship lines operating between this port and San Francisco, and between this port and Vancouver, B. C., to accommodate the applicants for passage so that special steamers were chartered for this sole purpose."

Asian Indians

Largely due to this mainland recruiting, Hawai'i found it impossible to maintain a permanent labor supply from the usual sources. Government and individual enterprise had turned toward other sources but without notable success. In 1908, 201 Hindus were brought in, but three-fourths of these had migrated to the mainland before twelve months had elapsed. (For many years India had been considered as a possible major source of labor. In 1866, Dr. Hillenbrand tried unsuccessfully to develop it. Again in 1876, Mr. J. H. Wodehouse espoused such a plan. At one time representations were made to the English crown.)

Official records of the Board of Immigration do not reveal under whose auspices these Hindus were obtained. The *Hawaiian Annual* of 1909 says only that, "Hawai'i has been visited by several bands of Hindu laborers, but so far they appear to be of a restless disposition."

Siberian and Manchurian Russians

Russians from Siberia and Manchuria were also recruited. On October 21, 1909, some 50 families, numbering 255 persons, arrived from Harbin. In the next three years some 2,000 more Russians were brought from Siberia. These people were extremely satisfactory but the number wishing to migrate was very limited. The report of the Board of Immigration in 1909, concludes that, "The only available source of such a (permanent labor) supply and the only hope for the future under the existing laws lies in the Philippine Islands."

As has been pointed out, all immigration prior to 1909 was under the sponsorship of the government. The legislatures had appropriated funds to defray either full or partial expenses for immigrants. There were many arrangements made between planters and the Board of Immigration whereby certain costs would be borne by each party. But the final responsibility always rested with the government. In the early days immigrants were what is commonly called "contract labor." They were bound to an employer to work for a specified period of time. Laws were enacted for the punishment of laborers who "jumped" contract. In many cases they were picked up by the police and returned to the employer. Later, as has been noted in several instances, immigrants were free to accept jobs provided or to take up land, establish their own business, etc. But in these latter cases, there was no provision for return transportation.

The pattern changed with the recruitment of Filipinos. For the first time the Hawaiian Sugar Planters, through their Association, assumed responsibility for all phases of the program.

Filipinos

On December 20, 1906, 15 Filipinos were brought in by Mr. Albert Judd. These men were primarily investigating, looking into housing and general plantation conditions. They eventually returned to their homeland after spending some time at 'Ola'a Plantation. Small groups arrived in 1907 and in 1908. The first group of Filipinos directly recruited by the HSPA arrived in the Territory on July 20, 1909. There were approximately 45 in this group. A total of 639 Filipinos arrived in that year. The program was stepped up with the establishment of the HSPA Manila Office in 1909, and between that year and 1934, when the Tydings-McDuffie Act terminated the immigration, approximately 118,449 Filipinos were forwarded through the Manila Office.

The early contracts signed by Filipinos provided only for free transportation from the Philippines to Honolulu and the plantation to which assigned. In 1915 the contract was changed to provide free return transportation to Manila upon satisfactory completion of the terms of the agreement. In 1920 the contract was again changed to provide free return transportation to Manila and the town from which recruited.

In 1921 the Honolulu Labor Agreement was authorized as a result of negotiations between the planters and Mr. Francisco Varona, Special Labor Commissioner of the Philippine Government. These contracts were given primarily to the old-time Filipinos who arrived prior to 1915 and who had no contract granting free return transportation. They were also given to men who had already broken their original three-year agreement, giving them a second chance at fulfillment. In 1926, this same contract was given to independents who came to Honolulu at their own expense.

In the summer of 1937, Mr. Varona again visited the Territory on behalf of President Quezon to investigate the condition of Filipinos. As a result of his visit, it was again agreed to allow Filipinos who had previously failed to fulfill the requirements of their contracts, an opportunity to reestablish a contractual relationship.

The Varona Agreement of Employment, 1937-38, made provision for free return transportation to employees on both sugar and pineapple plantations who worked for the period specified in the agreement. Our records show that approximately 6,500 persons signed these contracts.

In 1927 recruiting of Filipinos was largely discontinued. From this time on Filipino men came almost entirely at their own expense while the Association continued its policy of bringing to the Territory at its expense "the wife and not to exceed two minor children of laborers already settled here and whose position and conduct were such that the plantation manager made a favorable recommendation to the Association."

Volunteers who came to Hawai'i after 1927, were screened through the HSPA office in Manila, given physical exams, etc. When they were forwarded through this office, they were guaranteed jobs on the plantations on arrival.

In 1927 and 1928 there was a movement started in the Philippines to charter ships and bring in people to Hawai'i, thereby by-passing the Manila Office. The ship *Consuelo* made two such trips and the *Sandviken* made one trip. A total or 1,951 persons arrived on these three voyages.

Both the Governor of the Territory and the Labor Commissioner of the Philippine Government recognized that this procedure would be detrimental to the Filipino people for they would be stranded in Honolulu with no jobs and very little money. Through a widespread educational campaign in the Philippines, this type of immigration was discouraged. All those persons who arrived aboard the *Consuelo* and *Sandviken*, who could pass physical examinations, were eventually given employment by the plantations.

Filipinos continued to voluntarily come to the Territory in increasingly large numbers until 1931, when the numbers permitted to come were reduced, owing to the fact that there was evidence of a sufficient labor supply here; and in the early part of 1932, the bringing of men was definitely discontinued, although Manila was instructed to still send forward any people specifically asked for by the plantations here.

As previously noted, importation of Filipinos was halted by law in 1934.

At the close of World War II, the plantations were extremely short of labor and we again looked to the Philippine Islands. Under the terms of the Tydings-McDuffie Act provision was made that the specified immigration quota should "not apply to a person coming or seeking to come to the Territory of Hawai'i who does not apply for an immigration or passport visa, but such immigration shall be determined by the Department of the Interior on the basis of the needs of industries in the Territory of Hawai'i."

Under regulations governing the importation of Filipino citizens into Hawai'i which were issued by the Secretary of the Interior and following representations made by the HSPA and the Pineapple Growers' Association showing that a critical shortage of agricultural labor existed in the Territory, the Governor issued an order on August 11, 1945, authorizing the HSPA on behalf of its members and on behalf of the members of the Pineapple Growers' Association to bring to Hawai'i 6,000 male laborers and their wives and children, if any. Clearance of the program in the Philippines was obtained from President Osmena and General Douglas MacArthur.

Mr. Slator Miller went to Manila in September of 1945 to activate the program. A cuartel [barracks] was established at Vigan, Ilocos Sur, and the long and tedious task of recruitment began. Vigan was practically untouched by the war, being the only town of size to come through undestroyed. Buildings were found to be available, and transportation facilities were fairly adequate. Probably very few of the laborers recruited realized the tremendous difficulties which were encountered in the operation of the cuartel.

The most difficult factor in the entire program was the lack of rapid communication between Manila and Vigan and between Vigan and San Fernando, which was the nearest point with telephone communication to Manila. Mail service was slow, letters taking from a minimum of five days up to ten days to go from Vigan to Manila. The providing of some 600,000 meals to applicants and their families was also a terrific undertaking in those days of inadequate supplies. Despite all these difficulties the project was a complete success, resulting in the forwarding of 6,000 adult males, 446 wives, and 915 children.

Throughout the discussion of the contractual arrangements between the HSPA and Filipino workers the word "contract" has been used because of its common usage on the plantations. It must be stressed that these are "agreements of employment" which are binding only upon the HSPA. There is no legal obligation on the part of the laborer to perform. The HSPA guarantees to provide certain perquisites, wages, working conditions, as long as the laborer works on a sugar plantation up to the time specified by the agreement. Upon satisfactory completion of the terms of the agreement by the employee, the HSPA guarantees return transportation. These workers are, in no sense, contract laborers as were those persons who were brought to the Islands in the early years of the migration.

In summary: Hawaiian industry, primarily the sugar plantations, directly and with the assistance of the several governments, has brought to these Islands from many parts of the world some 350,000 immigrants, at a cost of untold millions of dollars. An additional fabulous sum has been expended in the return of Filipinos to their homeland following successful completion of contracts, or due to illness, old age, and the like.

We have seen that many of the immigrants returned to the countries from whence they came. We have also seen that many left to work in other places.

But a great many remained in Hawai'i, to make these Islands their home, to bring up their families as citizens of a new country, to acquire property, to hold high public position—in short, to become respected and valued members of a progressive American community. The sugar industry can well be proud of the part which it has played in this metamorphosis.

Chronology and Composition of Labor Immigration 1852-1946

Ethnic Designation	Period of Arrival in Hawaii	Approximate Number of Immigrants	Percentage Composition Men	Women	Children	Dialectal Type or Area of Homeland from which Largely Recruited
Chinese	1852-1885	28,000	98	2	0	Chiefly from Kwangtung Province, Few Fukinese Punti dialect (Chungshan); Hakka (near Hong Kong)
	1886-1897	27,000	89	6	5	
Portuguese	1878-1886	10,700	31	23	46	Madeira and Azores Islands
	1906-1913	5,500	34	23	43	
South Pacific Islanders	1859-1884	2,500	77	12	11	Gilbert Islanders, Fijians, Melanesians (New Hebrides, Solomons), Marquesans, Tahitians
Norwegians	1881	600	67	13	20	Vicinity of Oslo and Drammen, Norway
Germans	1881-1888, 1897	1,300	46	18	36	Northwestern Germany near Bremen and Nienburg
Japanese	1868, 1885-97	45,000	81	18	1	Hiroshima, Yamaguchi, Kumamoto, Fukuoka, and Okinawa Prefectures chiefly
	1898-1907	114,000	81	18	1	
U.S. Negroes	1901	100	--	--	--	Louisiana, Alabama, Tennessee
Puerto Ricans	1900-1901, 1921	6,000	59	41		Recruited in Ponce and San Juan
Koreans	1903-1905	7,900	85	9	6	Southern Korea
Russians	1906, 1909-1912	2,400	52	22	26	Siberia, Manchuria
Spanish	1907-1913	8,000	34	27	39	Southwestern Spain, Malaga, Cadiz, Granada
Filipinos	1907-1932	119,000	87	8	5	Initially Tagalogs near Manila
	1946	7,300	82	6	12	Later Visayans and Ilokanos

Questions

1. Which ethnic groups tended to immigrate as families? On what do you base your answer?

2. Why do you think "U.S. Negroes" were recruited primarily from the southern states?

3. Why do you think workers were recruited from many different countries rather than one or two?

Immigrants Admitted to Hawai'i by Country of Birth

Years	China and Taiwan	Japan and Ryukyu Islands	Portugal	Spain[1]	Korea	Philippines[2]	Canada	Vietnam[3]	Others[4]	TOTAL
1852-54	369	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	369
1855-59	282	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	282
1860-64	53	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	53
1865-69	1,069	148	---	---	---	---	---	---	169	1,386
1870-74	699	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	54	753
1875-79	8,107	---	599	---	---	---	---	---	692	9,398
1880-84	15,305	---	8,872	---	---	---	---	---	3,274	27,451
1885-89	3,262	10,600	1,088	---	---	---	---	---	46	14,996
1890-94	1,987	20,396	367	---	---	---	---	---	---	22,750
1895-99	7,368	37,273	---	---	---	---	---	---	613	45,254
1900-04	2,379	29,098	144	3	2,415	---	---	---	1,390	35,429
1905-09	404	47,440	2,452	2,279	5,009	639	---	---	875	59,098
1910-14	607	13,817	2,767	5,430	169	16,377	---	---	3,394	42,561
1915-19	544	13,840	10	7	418	12,784	---	---	635	28,238
1920-24	1,140	11,127	19	14	272	31,849	---	---	1,189	45,610
1925-29	173	488	---	---	33	42,146	---	---	553	43,393
1930-34	61	186	1	3	5	14,760	4	---	259	15,175
1935-39	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	477
1940-44	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	289
1945-49	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	2,619
1950-54	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	2,609
1955-59	479	1,770	---	---	---	---	---	---	3,245	5,494
1960-64	550	1,652	---	---	---	2,330	917	---	3,370	8,819
1965-69	1,368	1,490	15	---	---	10,160	1,006	---	4,094	18,133
1970-74	1,970	2,383	5	---	91	20,491	391	---	5,559	30,890
1975-79	2,706	2,397	---	---	2,321	19,117	730	2,096	6,939	36,306
1980-	1,108	555	---	---	2,338	8,691	138	---	1,533	14,363

1. Spaniards counted as others after 1932.
2. Filipinos were not counted as immigrants until 1961. Tabulations prior to 1961 were made by the Hawai'i Sugar Planters' Association.
3. Excludes Vietnamese on parole status, i.e., those who entered the country as refugees.
4. Includes all nationalities not shown separately, such as South Sea Islanders, Russians, Germans, Norwegians, and other Europeans.

Question

Where did the majority of immigrants come from between 1852 and 1884? Between 1885 and 1924? Betwee 1960 and 1979?

National Immigration Policies

Quota Laws of 1921, 1924, and 1929

For the first time in U.S. immigration history, Congress put a limit on the number of immigrants that could enter the country annually by instituting a quota system. It placed an annual limit to any nationality at three percent of the foreign-born persons of that nationality who resided in the United States according to the 1910 population census. A further restriction to the 1921 law was made by the passage of the Act of 1924 which reduced the quota to two percent of the foreign-born as reflected in the population census of 1890. The act was further amended in 1929 to base the quota on the national origin of all persons living in the United States as of 1920, rather than just the foreign-born residents of that nationality.

Displaced Persons Act of 1948

This was the first of a number of special acts passed to provide for the admission of refugees (from communist-dominated countries, victims of natural calamities, and orphans) without regard to numerical limitations.

Act of 1950

Spouses and children of members of the Armed Forces, regardless of nationality, were made eligible for immigration. This measure benefited primarily Japanese and Korean aliens who, during the American occupation in Japan and Korea, married American service personnel.

Act of 1952

The act reaffirmed the quota concept and established a preference system for distributing visas within each country's quota allotment.

Act of 1965

This act abolished the national origin system set up in 1929. It put a limitation of 170,000 immigrants per year from the Eastern Hemisphere, with no more than 20,000 immigrants coming from any one country; and a limitation of 120,000 immigrants per year from the Western Hemisphere which had previously been unrestricted. Persons could immigrate according to seven preferences:

First preference:	unmarried sons and daughters of U.S. citizens
Second preference:	spouses and unmarried sons and daughters of permanent residents
Third preference:	professionals or persons of exceptional ability in science and art
Fourth preference:	married sons and daughters of U.S. citizens
Fifth preference:	brothers and sisters of U.S. citizens 21 years of age or over

	Sixth preference:	skilled and unskilled workers in short supply
	Seventh preference:	refugees
1978	The separate hemisphere limits were abolished in favor of a worldwide limit of 290,000 immigrants.	

Questions

1. How do you think the Quota Laws of 1921, 1924, and 1929 affected immigration to the U.S.?

2. How do you think the immigration laws of 1965 and 1978 affected immigration to the U.S.?

3. Look at the chart, "Immigrants Admitted to Hawai'i by Country of Birth." Do you see any relationship between the number of immigrants coming to Hawai'i and the U.S. immigration laws?

Naturalization: How to Become an American Citizen

A person who desires to be naturalized as a citizen of the United States may obtain the necessary application form as well as detailed information from the nearest office of the Immigration and Naturalization Service or from the clerk of a court handling naturalization cases.

An applicant must be at least 18 years old. He or she must have been a lawful resident of the United States continuously for five years. For husbands and wives of U.S. citizens the period is three years in most instances. Special provisions apply to certain veterans of the Armed Forces.

An applicant must have been physically present in this country for at least half of the required five years' residence.

Every applicant for naturalization must:

(1) demonstrate an understanding of the English language, including an ability to read, write, and speak words in ordinary usage in the English language (persons physically unable to do so, and persons who, on the date of their examinations, are over 50 years of age and have been lawful permanent residents of the United States for 20 years or more are exempt).

(2) have been a person of good moral character, attached to the principles of the Constitution, and well disposed to the good order and happiness of the United States for five years just before filing the petition or for whatever other period of residence is required in his or her case and continue to be such a person until admitted to citizenship;

(3) demonstrate a knowledge and understanding of the fundamentals of the history, and the principles and form of government, of the U.S.

The petitioner also is obligated to have two credible citizen witnesses. These witnesses must have personal knowledge of the applicant.

When the applicant files his petition he pays the court clerk $25.00. At the preliminary hearing he may be represented by a lawyer or social service agency. There is a 30-day wait. If action is favorable, there is a final hearing before a judge, who administers the following oath of allegiance:

> I hereby declare, on oath, that I absolutely and entirely renounce and abjure all allegiance and fidelity to any foreign prince, potentate, state or sovereignty, to whom or which I have heretofore been a subject or citizen; that I will support and defend the Constitution and laws of the United States of America against all enemies, foreign and domestic; that I will

bear true faith and allegiance to the same; that I will bear arms on behalf of the United States when required by the law; that I will perform noncombatant service in the armed forces of the United States when required by the law; that I will perform work of national importance under civilian direction when required by the law; and that I take this obligation freely without any mental reservation or purpose of evasion; so help me God.

Government and Politics

The Modern History of Government and Politics in Hawai'i

This outline can be used as an introduction to and/or a review of events and trends in Hawai'i's history. It provides background to an understanding of contemporary events and issues in our state and shows changes that have taken place over time. It can be used to spark discussion on pattern and relationships in events, possible causes of certain changes, why a certain event took place at a particular time, and what changes might occur in the future. Numerous activities are suggested for use with the outline.

DEFINITIONS

Attorney General: The highest legal office in the administrative branch of government, usually providing special legal advice to the government.

Cede: To cede a nation is to give it to another nation. A cession of land or a kingdom is possible. Kamehameha I is said to have "ceded" the island of Hawai'i to Great Britain to obtain assistance from Captain George Vancouver in his efforts to unify the kingdom.

Civil Code: A collection of laws which describe the structure, powers, and duties of government institutions and officials. A civil code may deal with the three branches of government: the executive, the judicial, and the legislative. A civil code does not include the laws which regulate behavior or punishments. Those laws would be called a criminal code.

Constitution: A constitution is the basic document which sets out the fundamental law of a nation or state. It organizes government, assigns and limits political power, and defines the rights of the people. The constitution is the highest law of the land in most western democracies. It is usually more formal and more general than an organic act.

Executive: The branch of government whose duty is to execute the laws. The structure of the executive branch is often referred to as the administration, as are the collective individuals working within the executive branch.

Haole: The Hawaiian word for a foreigner. Later *haole* is used to mean Caucasian.

Kuhina nui: A powerful position in the early days of the Hawaiian government, created by Ka'ahumanu in 1819. Sometimes this is translated as prime minister or premier.

Organic act: An organic act generally sets up a basic government structure, a

set of official offices, like a set of organs in a living animal, each with a specific purpose. In some ways an organic act functions like a constitution.

Penal code: A set of laws which deal with criminal offenses and their punishment. It is usually a systematic compilation of such criminal laws.

Property: Anything owned, such as land, buildings, and livestock.

Property rights: The ownership of property and the right to use, lease, or sell that property.

Protectorate: A special arrangement between two nations whereby one nation agrees to protect the other in its dealings with foreign nations.

Regent: The person who acts as protector and substitute ruler for a young monarch until the monarch reaches an age and maturity to fully assume the powers and responsibilities of ruling. Ka'ahumanu became regent for King Kamehameha III because he was only a boy when he became king.

Sanction: To condone or to agree to something. "The King refused to sanction foreigners' right to own land." Sanction also can be used in a negative sense, such as a punishment: "The government imposed sanctions on British citizens."

Suffrage: The right to vote. Universal suffrage means every adult can vote. Universal male suffrage means every man (but not woman) can vote.

Treaty: A formal agreement between two governments.

Kamehameha I = Kamehameha the Great

Kamehameha II = Liholiho 'Iolani

Kamehameha III = Kauikeaouli

Kamehameha IV = Alexander Liholiho

Kamehameha V = Lot Kapuaiwa

OUTLINE

1778-1819

1770 to 1795 POLITICS: Prominent Hawaiian chiefs compete for power and engage in warfare throughout the Hawaiian Islands.

1778 FOREIGN RELATIONS: British Captain James Cook, exploring the Pacific, arrives in Hawai'i. This is the first confirmed western contact. Cook names

the islands the Sandwich Islands, after Lord Sandwich of Britain. Arriving during the *makahiki* festival, Cook is mistaken for the Hawaiian god Lono. During a return visit in 1779, Cook is killed during a brief fight with Hawaiians at Kealakekua Bay.

1786 to 1794 Fur traders from North America begin spending the winter in Hawai'i, stimulating barter and spreading the word about Hawai'i to others. As more trading vessels arrive, local chiefs begin to acquire western arms for use in their rivalries with other chiefs.

1790 to 1800 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: As the foreign population in Hawai'i begins to grow, primarily through stranded sailors, several become advisors to Hawaiian chiefs. One chief, Kamehameha, employs the services of John Young and Isaac Davis, two English sailors who become his trusted advisors.

1791 POLITICS: Kamehameha I consolidates his control over the island of Hawai'i through a series of battles with local chiefs.

1792 to 1794 POLITICS: English Captain George Vancouver, who had been a midshipman with Captain Cook, returns to Hawai'i and becomes a confidant and advisor to Kamehameha I in his rise to power.

1794 FOREIGN RELATIONS: In exchange for arms and advice, Kamehameha I "cedes" the island of Hawai'i to Great Britain on the suggestion of Vancouver. Great Britain never formally acknowledges the cession, and there is no evidence that Kamehameha I understood the legal implications.

1795: POLITICS: Kamehameha I conquers Maui, Moloka'i, and O'ahu and becomes the first ruler of the unified Hawaiian Kingdom. Only Kaua'i remains independent. Kaua'i's ruler, Kaumuali'i, finally accepts Kamehameha's authority in 1810, and Kaumuali'i is allowed to remain as governor of Kaua'i.

1816 FOREIGN RELATIONS: In 1804 a Russian delegation, headed by Alexander Baranov and representing the Russian-American fur trading company, visits the Hawaiian Kingdom. Trade develops, but in later years, Baranov begins planning for a permanent Russian trading post, preferably on a Russian-owned island. In 1816 one of his captains, Georg Scheffer, talks Kaumuali'i of Kaua'i into placing Kaua'i under the protection of Russia. In Honolulu, Scheffer raises the Russian flag and desecrates a *heiau*. Kamehameha I orders the Russians out of Hawai'i and builds a fort at Honolulu Harbor to keep them out. Scheffer returns to Kaua'i and in 1817 constructs the Russian Fort at Waimea. Kamehameha orders Kaumuali'i to expel Scheffer, which he does.

1819 POLITICS: Kamehameha the Great dies, designating his young son Liholiho as his successor and his favorite wife,

Ka'ahumanu, as regent until Liholiho is old enough to fully assume his kingly duties. Ka'ahumanu declares herself to be the *kuhina nui* and begins to dominate government policy. She persuades Liholiho to assist her in abolishing the *kapu* system, an action which is supported by many chiefs whose political power, like that of Ka'ahumanu, was limited by the *kapu* system.

1819 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: By this time, the tradition of accepting foreign advisors is firmly established. Besides the Englishmen Isaac Davis and John Young, other prominent foreign advisors include Oliver Holmes, an American, and Don Francisco de Paula Marin, a Spaniard. They and others learn to speak Hawaiian, marry one or more native women of high rank, and, until 1819, accept the restrictions of the *kapu* system. Some, like John Young, are appointed by Kamehameha I as governors-chiefs of his islands and are treated as *ali'i*. Most become wealthy and prominent members of the community.

1820-1839

1821 POLITICS: Kamehameha II (Liholiho) visits Kaua'i to secure the loyalty of Kaumuali'i, whom he brings back to O'ahu. Kaumuali'i is restricted to O'ahu and is made a husband to Ka'ahumanu, who also marries his son.

1822 LAW: The earliest printed laws of the Hawaiian Kingdom are enacted by the council of chiefs and directed against foreigners who disturb the peace. The laws provide penalties ranging from fines to expulsion from the islands. In 1825 two foreigners are expelled under these laws.

1823 FOREIGN RELATIONS: Liholiho sails for England, hoping to learn of other lands and to renew Hawai'i's special relationship with Great Britain. Falling ill of the measles, the King and his Queen, Kamāmalu, die in London in 1824.

1824 LAW: New laws are imposed on the people by Ka'ahumanu and the chiefs. Based on the teachings of the missionaries, they include strict observance of the Sabbath and prohibition of murder, theft, boxing, fighting, and work on the Sabbath. There is also a requirement that people attend schools.

1825 LAW: The chiefs ban promiscuity and Hawaiian games associated with gambling. This legal actions cause riots among protesting foreigners in 1825, 1826, and 1827.

1825 POLITICS: Kauikeaouli becomes Kamehameha III.

1825 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: Returning with the bodies of Liholiho and Kamāmalu, Lord Byron meets with the chiefs and suggests several governmental reforms, including trial by jury.

1825 to 1832 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: Under the influence of Ka'ahumanu, Hawai'i's government begins to adopt certain western procedures such as trial by jury. The first trial by jury is in 1826. In 1828 a man is executed in accordance with this new procedure.

1825 to 1832 POLITICS: Political factions appear among the chiefs based on their attitudes toward the new puritanical laws. The larger and more powerful group favors the laws, while a smaller group, often joined by Kamehameha III, prefers a more liberal approach. To serve their interests, foreign groups—including missionaries, traders, and British, American, and French citizens—side with different native factions.

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1826 FOREIGN RELATIONS and GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: Captain Gatsby Jones of the United States obtains a renewed pledge by the chiefs to repay debts to American traders. To raise the money, the rulers pass the first written tax law in Hawai'i, requiring every man to pay either half a picul (a *picul* is 133.33 pounds) of sandalwood or four Spanish dollars. Jones also negotiates the first treaty Hawai'i signs with a foreign government, providing for the peace and protection of American interests. This "treaty" is never ratified by the U.S. but is informally respected for many years.

1827 LAW: The chiefs enact another code of laws, prohibiting murder, theft, and adultery and providing penalties for each. Proposed laws against rum selling, prostitution, and gambling are rejected under pressure from foreigners. This is regarded as the beginning of formal legislation.

1832 POLITICS: Ka'ahumanu dies after guiding Hawai'i through a period of new lawmaking and relations with foreign governments and residents. Her successor as *kuhina nui* is Kīna'u, wife of Boki, governor of O'ahu. By 1833 Kamehameha III rebels against Kīna'u's authority and abolishes most of the laws previously enacted. He enters a period of drunkenness and neglects his governmental duties.

1835 LAW: The chiefs enact a short penal code dealing with murder, theft, adultery, divorce, fraud, and drunkenness. Kamehameha III is persuaded to sign the new code. This penal code represents the consolidation of various laws and penalties up to that time and restores the laws he abolished in 1833.

1836 A British-Hawaiian treaty recognizes the property rights of both the Hawaiian king and English subjects. English subjects are permitted to reside in Hawai'i so long as they conform to the laws of the islands. They may build houses and warehouses with the consent of the king. The treaty states that the king owns the land on which the houses are built but that the king has no

authority to destroy those houses or damage British property.

1836 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: Missionary William Richards carries a request by the chiefs to America for someone to teach them economics and government, or "a teacher of the chiefs in what pertains to the land, according to the practice of enlightened countries." Returning in 1838 without a teacher, the chiefs persuade Richards to enter this service to the King. In the next dozen years, Richards becomes extremely influential as Hawai'i enacts her first constitution and numerous laws.

1837 FOREIGN RELATIONS: Sparked by a controversy over the right of French Catholic priests to stay in the islands, a French captain successfully negotiates a treaty with the King providing for the same treatment of French subjects as those of other nations.

1839 FOREIGN RELATIONS: French Captain C. P. T. Laplace demands religious freedom for Catholics and a bond of $20,000 to guarantee compliance. Money is borrowed to pay Laplace, who then successfully "negotiates" a treaty which overturns the national ban on the import of liquor and requires juries for French subjects be chosen by the French consul.

1839 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: The Hawaiian government enacts a declaration of rights,

which protects the property rights of commoners from arbitrary seizure and limits taxation. It also enacts a series of laws which constitute a civil code, including taxes on voting, land, and labor; and provisions dealing with fisheries, irrigation, inheritance, land agents, and government officers. William Richards is an active participant in the drafting of these laws.

1840-1859

1840 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: Hawai'i's first constitution is adopted. It includes a declaration of rights, freedom of religion, and trial by jury. It establishes the powers and duties of the king, the *kuhina nui*, and the four governors; a two-house legislature with one house elected; tax officers; a judicial system; and a provision for amendments.

1840 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: Chiefs pass the first election law providing for a seven-member legislature elected by ballot-letters sent to the King on behalf of candidates. This law stands for ten years, during which there are three legislative sessions: 1845, 1846, and 1848.

1842 FOREIGN RELATIONS: William Richards, George Simpson, and Timothy Haalilio are sent by Kamehameha III in search of formal recognition of Hawai'i's independence from the great powers. U.S. President John Tyler, through the

influence of Secretary of State Daniel Webster, takes note of Hawai'i's independence and appoints a consul. They also receive written acknowledgment from Great Britain and a verbal promise from France. A joint declaration of Hawai'i's independence is signed by Britain and France in 1843.

1843 FOREIGN RELATIONS: The British consul and Captain Lord Paulet, responding to the charges of Richard Charleton, force Kamehameha III, under threat of violence, to cede Hawai'i to Great Britain. They are unaware of England's recent declaration of Hawai'i's independence. British Admiral Sir Richard Thomas arrives in Hawai'i and restores the Hawaiian Kingdom several months later, at which time Kamehameha III speaks the words which become Hawai'i's state motto: *Ua mau ke ea o ka 'āina i ka pono* (The life of the land is perpetuated in righteousness.).

1844 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: Joining William Richards in the service of the government during the 1840s are Gerrit Judd, Lorrin Andrews, Richard Armstrong, and Edwin Hall. In 1844 John Ricord is appointed attorney general of the Kingdom. Like the other foreigners in service to the government, he is required to take an oath of allegiance to Kamehameha III and to renounce his allegiance to the United States. By the end of 1844 there are 14 haoles working for the Hawaiian government.

1844 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: A weekly newspaper, *The Polynesian*, becomes an official publication of the government. It is edited by a young New Englander, James Jackson Jarves.

1845 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: Attorney General Ricord drafts the first of three organic acts. An Act to Organize the Executive Ministry provides for the first official cabinet in Hawai'i--the appointment by the king of five ministers: interior, foreign relations, finance, public instruction, and the attorney general; and formally establishes the premier *(kuhina nui)* and a privy council. When the law goes into effect in 1846, the King appoints John Young as premier and minister of interior, Robert Wyllie as minister of foreign relations, Gerrit Judd as minister of finance, William Richards as minister of public instruction, and John Ricord as attorney general. Thus this first official cabinet in Hawai'i is made up of non-Hawaiians.

1846 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: The second organic act, An Act to Organize the Executive Departments, sets out in great detail the functions of the five departments and establishes the Land Commission (The Board of Commissioners to Quiet Land Titles) to settle all land claims. This results in the Great Māhele, an official division of the lands.

1846 POLITICS: *The Sandwich Islands News* is established as an opposition paper to *The Polynesian*, providing a vehicle for criticism of the politics and personalities in the government of Kamehameha III.

1847 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: The third organic act, An Act to Organize the Judiciary Department, sets up an entire judicial system. William Lee, a young American lawyer in his twenties, is appointed Hawai'i's first chief justice of the Superior Courts of Law and Equity. His associates are the Hawaiian John 'Ī'ī and the former missionary principal of Lahainaluna High School, Lorrin Andrews.

1848 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: Hawai'i's newly westernized government takes on the task of reforming the land use system. The Great Māhele begins with the division of all lands between the king and chiefs. The king's lands are further divided into private lands (Crown lands) and government lands.

1849 FOREIGN RELATIONS: The French Consul and the commander of the French fleet in the Pacific demand special treatment for French subjects. Troops are landed, setting prisoners loose and destroying over $100,000 in property (about a year's revenue for the Kingdom).

1849 STATEHOOD: The first known account of a call for Hawai'i's statehood is published by a New York newspaper.

1850 LAW: The legislature passes the Kuleana Act, which permits the granting of fee simple title to commoners for lands they live on and cultivate to feed themselves and their families.

1850 FOREIGN RELATIONS: Gerrit Judd, traveling with James Jarves and two young future kings (Alexander Liholiho, age 15, and his brother Prince Lot, age 18), negotiates fairer treaties with the United States and Great Britain, which provide for recognition of Hawaiian independence. The British treaty is based on the American treaty and later becomes the model for treaties between Hawai'i and the Kingdoms of Sweden and Norway in 1852.

1852 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: Gerrit Judd, Judge 'Ī'ī, and Judge Lee are appointed to draft Hawai'i's second constitution, which in its final form changes the number of members in the legislature. It sets a limit of 30 members for the house of nobles and between 24 to 40 members for the house of representives, to be elected by universal male suffrage. This gives suffrage to commoners; it is opposed by those who seek to strengthen the power of the king.

1853 to 1854 POLITICS: The election of expansionist Franklin Pierce to the U.S. presidency and the settling of California stimulate U.S. interest in the annexation of Hawai'i. The Committee of Thirteen investigates the monarchy and Gerrit Judd's role. Some push for the over-

throw of the government, while others favor annexation. A secret treaty is negotiated with these Americans which provides for annexation and statehood. However, all talk of annexation ends with the death of Kamehameha III in December 1854.

1854 POLITICS: Kamehameha III (Kauikeaouli) dies after presiding over thirty years of Hawai'i's evolution from a traditional kingdom to a constitutional monarchy. Alexander Liholiho becomes Kamehameha IV. He marries Emma Rooke, who later becomes a political force in her own right.

1855 POLITICS: In the first year of Kamehameha IV's reign, William Lee is commissioned to negotiate a reciprocity treaty with the administration of U.S. President Franklin Pierce. A draft is approved by the Hawaiian Kingdom, but it lingers for two years in the U.S. Senate and dies for lack of interest in 1857. This is the first attempt to negotiate a reciprocity treaty. A second attempt in the late 1860s also fails to pass the Senate. Success finally comes following Kalākaua's trip in 1874.

1860-1879

1861 FOREIGN RELATIONS: In order to avoid being entangled in the American Civil War, Hawai'i declares neutrality.

1863 POLITICS: At the age of 29, Kamehameha IV dies unexpectedly, after pursuing a slightly pro-British and anti-American foreign policy. He fails to designate a successor. His older brother, Prince Lot, is selected by the privy council as Kamehameha V.

1864 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: Kamehameha V, favoring a more traditional relationship between monarch and commoners, successfully amends the constitution to include literacy and property requirements for voting, thus repealing the universal male suffrage in the 1852 Constitution. The new constitution also abolishes the office of *kuhina nui*, reduces the powers of the privy council, and combines the house of nobles with the house of representatives. The purpose is to strengthen the king and his cabinet while diluting the growing democratic power of elected representatives. The Constitution of 1864 remains in force for 23 years, longer than any other Hawaiian constitution prior to annexation.

1867 FOREIGN RELATIONS: As the sugar industry begins to gain in importance, pressures grow for a reciprocity treaty with the United States. U.S. Secretary of State William Seward begins negotiations for such a treaty.

1870 FOREIGN RELATIONS: A reciprocity treaty is defeated in Congress.

1871 to 1872 POLITICS: Another depression hits the sugar industry, creating internal political pressure for a reciprocity treaty with the U.S.

1872 POLITICS: Kamehameha V, the last of the Kamehamehas, dies and leaves no designated successor. Under such conditions the 1864 Constitution provides for the legislature to choose a new king. They choose the popular William Lunalilo over his opponent David Kalākaua. Three of Lunalilo's four cabinent ministers are Americans, with the office of foreign affairs held by Charles Bishop, a supporter of reciprocity. The stage is set for a closer relationship with the United States.

1873 FOREIGN RELATIONS: Lunalilo agrees with members of his cabinet to offer Pearl Harbor to the U.S. in order to gain approval for a reciprocity treaty to protect sugar interests. Following opposition by native Hawaiians and some foreigners, Lunalilo withdraws his support for this idea. After Lunalilo's death, Kalākaua also opposes the granting of Pearl Harbor, and the 1875 treaty is negotiated without such a provision.

1873 to 1874 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: Lunalilo pushes through constitutional amendments restoring universal male suffrage.

1874 POLITICS: Lunalilo dies without designating a successor.

1874 POLITICS: King Kalākaua and Queen Emma actively compete to succeed Lunalilo: Kalākaua is elected by the legislature, 39-6. Queen Emma's supporters begin a riot, which is put down with the aid of American and British troops.

1874 FOREIGN RELATIONS: Kalākaua visits Washington to push for a reciprocity treaty.

1875 FOREIGN RELATIONS: The Reciprocity Treaty with the United States, removing U.S. tariffs on imported Hawaiian sugar, is ratified, stimulating tremendous growth in the sugar industry. In 1875 Hawai'i exports 50 million pounds; by 1890 this grows to 250 million pounds.

<u>1880-1899</u>

1880 to 1890 The public debt grows from $388,900 to $2,600,000.

1881 FOREIGN RELATIONS: Kalākaua begins his global trip, the first monarch known to travel around the world.

1882 to 1887 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: Kalākaua's cabinet is dominated by Walter Murray Gibson, who presides over a scandal-ridden period. Among the corrupt events are the conveyance of 24,000 acres of Crown Lands to Claus Spreckels; a coin minting scheme which also greatly profits Spreckels; an attempt to set up a lottery; and an 1886 Opium Bill which gives the government the right to sell

an opium monopoly license for $30,000. Other issues include the selling of public offices, defrauding of the customs revenue, illegal leasing of lands, and neglect of public roads. Gibson is also associated with the deliberate stirring up of racial antagonisms through his cry of "Hawai'i for the Hawaiians."

1883 POLITICS: Returning from his trip, Kalākaua is crowned king in front of the newly completed 'Iolani Palace.

1884 FOREIGN RELATIONS: A Japanese-Hawaiian treaty permits the further importation of Japanese contract laborers to Hawai'i.

1886 FOREIGN RELATIONS: Encouraged by Gibson, Kalākaua attempts to form a Pacific Empire through an alliance with Samoa and successfully signs an agreement to form a political federation. As a follow-up, Kalākaua outfits an old steamship, the *Kaimiloa*, with a crew from a Honolulu prison and sends it down to Samoa. The rowdy crew revolts, and this venture ends in complete disaster. Kalākaua's dreams of an empire dissolve, especially after the downfall of Gibson in 1887.

1887 POLITICS: Seeking a constitution more favorable to themselves, foreigners and non-Hawaiian citizens form the Hawaiian League, a group determined to limit the power of the king. The League includes people ready, if necessary, to overthrow the monarchy and push for annexation.

1887 POLITICS and GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: Triggered by an opium bribery scandal implicating Kalākaua, the Hawaiian League organizes mass protest demonstrations and demands that the King dismiss his cabinet and submit to a new constitution. Kalākaua, deserted by his own troops, offers to transfer the powers of the king to representatives of the U.S., Great Britain, France, and Portugal, all of whom refuse.

1887 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: Kalākaua is forced to approve a new constitution. Known as the Bayonet Constitution of 1887, it is a revision of the 1864 constitution promulgated by Kamehameha V. The most important changes include the inability of the king to dismiss cabinet members without the consent of the legislature, the requirement of cabinet approval for all acts of the king, the right of two-thirds of the legislature to override the king's veto, and the election of nobles by those of large income or property. A new cabinet is also sworn in.

1889 POLITICS: Opposing the Constitution of 1887, Robert W. Wilcox and numerous other native Hawaiians form a revolutionary organization to take over the government. Wilcox surrounds the palace and government buildings with 150 followers but is unsuccessful as the cabinet mobilizes sharpshooters to put down the revolt.

1891 POLITICS: To improve his failing health, Kalākaua travels to California where he dies. His sister, Lili'uokalani, is proclaimed queen and takes the usual oath to support the constitution.

1892 POLITICS: In January Lorrin A. Thurston, Henry Cooper, and approximately 15 others form a secret annexation club, prepared to act should Lili'uokalani seek to reverse the Constitution of 1887. In 1893, 13 of its members are appointed to the Committee on Safety, which plans and directs the overthrow of the monarchy.

1892 FOREIGN RELATIONS: American Rear Admiral George Brown is granted general permission to land troops for shore detail. This sets a precedent for the landing of troops in 1893.

1892 POLITICS: During the 1892 legislative session, three political parties vie for power: the Reform Party, the Liberal Party, and the National Reform Party. The Legislature is about evenly divided between Hawaiians and non-Hawaiians.

1892 POLITICS: Lili'uokalani's government is plagued with instability as the Legislature struggles with the Queen for control of her cabinet, resulting in various coalitions and turnovers of cabinet personnel.

1892 POLITICS and GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: Dissatisfied with the status of the monarchy under the 1887 Bayonet Constitution, Lili'uokalani begins to prepare a new constitution. Her actions precipitate the overthrow of the monarchy.

1893 POLITICS: A Committee of Safety is formed to plan the overthrow. It is made up of four Americans (H. E. Cooper, F. W. McChesney, T. F. Lansing and J. A. McCandless), four who were born in Hawai'i of American parents (W. O. Smith, L. A. Thurston, W. R. Castle, and A. S. Wilcox), three naturalized Hawaiian citizens (W. C. Wilder, American; C. Bolte, German; Henry Waterhouse, Tasmanian), one Scotchman (Andrew Brown), and one German (H. F. Glade).

1893 POLITICS and GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: Acting in coordination with the Committee of Safety, U.S. Minister Stevens arranges for the landing of troops from the cruiser *Boston* on January 16. This sets the stage for the occupation of Ali'iolani Hale, the reading of a proclamation ending the monarchy, and the setting up of a provisional government on January 17. The Queen is forced, under protest, to surrender her authority.

1893 FOREIGN RELATIONS: The new provisional government quickly appoints five commissioners to negotiate an annexation treaty with the U.S., which is signed by President Benjamin Harrison just before his term of office expires. The new President, Grover Cleveland,

refuses to promote annexation before sending a special commissioner, James H. Blount, to investigate. Blount concludes that the revolution was a conspiracy between Stevens and the revolutionary leaders. He recommends restoring Lili'uokalani to power. Cleveland's new minister, Albert Willis, views things differently and persuades Cleveland not to interfere.

1894 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: The new provisional government, unable to secure immediate annexation, proclaims the Republic of Hawai'i with a new constitution on July 4, 1894. The Republic's first and only president is Sanford B. Dole, who serves until 1900.

1895 POLITICS: Seeking to restore the throne, Queen Lili'uokalani is involved in a counterrevolution attempt which fails. The former Queen is held under house arrest in 'Iolani Palace.

1896 FOREIGN RELATIONS: The U.S. presidential victory of William McKinley restores hope for annexation.

1898 FOREIGN RELATIONS: The Republic of Hawai'i enthusiastically supports the U.S. during the Spanish-American War, hoping to earn more support for annexation.

1898 FOREIGN RELATIONS: Hawai'i is annexed to the United States on August 12, but due to the war, implementing legislation is delayed until 1900.

1900-1919

1900 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: President McKinley signs the Organic Act of 1900, formally making Hawai'i a territory and providing the structure for Hawai'i's territorial government for the next 59 years. All citizens of the Kingdom at the time of annexation become citizens of the territory, granting commoners more power than they had previously.

1900 The Home Rule Party elects Robert Wilcox as the first Delegate to Congress.

1900 to 1920 POLITICS: Ethnic Hawaiians remain a majority of the electorate but are unable to translate that majority into real political power in the Territory.

1900 to 1959 POLITICS: The Big Five (American Factors, C. Brewer, Castle & Cooke, Theo H. Davies, and Alexander & Baldwin) dominate territorial political decisions regardless of who is appointed governor by the U.S. President. Seven Republican governors serve a total of 33 years; five Democrats serve a total of 26 years.

1901 LAW: Hawai'i becomes one of the first territories or states to enact an income tax.

1902 to 1922 POLITICS: Prince Kūhiō, attempting to balance the needs of Hawaiians with the interests of the Big Five, serves as delegate to Congress.

1903 STATEHOOD: The Hawai'i Territorial Legislature unsuccessfully petitions Congress for statehood.

1905 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: Prince Kūhiō successfully pushes for the establishment of county governments, which include separate legislative branches in each county. This gives more power to the neighbor islands, and hence power to Hawaiians, who mostly reside outside of O'ahu.

1919 STATEHOOD: Prince Kūhiō and Governor McCarthy unsuccessfully ask Congress to favorably consider statehood for Hawai'i. McCarthy is the first governor to lend his support to this movement.

1920-1939

1921 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: The Organic Act is amended by Congress requiring a prior three-year residence for federally appointed officers (governors and judges).

1923 to 1924 POLITICS: Protesting unfair treatment in Congress, Hawai'i's leaders successfully gain more federal appropriations to the territory.

1931 STATEHOOD: The statehood movement is set back by the Massie case, which damages Hawai'i's image as a potential state.

1934 President Franklin D. Roosevelt becomes the first President of the United States to visit Hawai'i.

1935 STATEHOOD: Delegate Samuel Wilder King introduces a bill for Hawai'i to form a state government, stimulating Congressional hearings in Hawai'i in 1935 and 1937 which result in favorable reports.

1940-1959

1940 STATEHOOD: A Hawaiian plebiscite endorses statehood by a vote of two to one.

1941 STATEHOOD and FOREIGN RELATIONS: Pearl Harbor is attacked, martial law is declared, and Hawai'i's movement toward statehood is delayed until after the war.

1943 POLITICS: Americans of Japanese Ancestry (AJAs) join the 100th Infantry Battalion and, together with the 442nd Regimental Combat Team, become the most decorated heroes during World War II in 1944 battles in Italy. Their heroism sets the stage for their assumption of prominence in Hawai'i's political world after the war.

1944 POLITICS: The power of unions grows as thirty-four unions in Hawai'i are recognized by the National Labor Relations Board. This has important political implications: groups long excluded from active participation in government gain political and economic power as unions eventually become a major force in the islands.

1945 POLITICS: Unions gain more power as the International Longshoremen's and Warehousemen's Union (ILWU), led by organizers like Jack Hall, win 19 plantation elections. By 1947 ILWU membership is up to 30,000.

1949 POLITICS and GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: The Hawai'i Territorial Legislature authorizes the convening of a constitutional convention to craft a constitution in preparation for statehood.

1950 POLITICS: As the fear of communist influence in America spreads, the U.S. House Un-American Activities Subcommittee holds hearings to investigate communist influence in unions in Hawai'i. The ILWU is expelled from the Congress of Industrial Organizations (CIO) under the suspicion of being communist led. In 1953 several Hawai'i union leaders are convicted of violating the Smith Act, which made it a crime to be associated with a group advocating the violent overthrow of the government. Their convictions are later overturned.

1950 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: A new Territorial Constitution, based on the U.S. Constitution, is approved by Hawai'i's voters by a three-to-one margin.

1950 STATEHOOD: Hawai'i and Alaska Statehood Bills in Congress are deferred due to preoccupation with the Korean War.

1952 to 1958 POLITICS: World War II veterans, led by John A. (Jack) Burns, rejuvenate the Democratic Party. The party is composed of three factions: one dominated by the ILWU, one led by Burns, and one composed of so-called Independents.

1954 POLITICS: The Democratic Party, appealing to minorities who have felt left out of full participation in Hawai'i's society, gains control of the Territorial Legislature.

1956 STATEHOOD: John A. Burns is elected as delegate to Congress, where he begins to work effectively to secure passage of Hawai'i's Statehood Bill.

1958 STATEHOOD: Burns agrees to allow Alaska to become a State first in order to secure support for Hawai'i the following year.

1959 STATEHOOD and GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: Hawai'i becomes the fiftieth state of the Union.

1959 POLITICS: Burns is defeated by William Quinn for the honor of becoming the State of Hawai'i's first governor. Elected to the U.S. Senate are Republican Hiram Fong and Democrat Oren Long. To the House of Representatives are sent Dan Inouye and Tom Gill, both Democrats.

1962 POLITICS: John Burns is elected governor and presides over a period of tremendous growth in Hawai'i as the number of tourists triple and defense expenditures and retail sales double. Hawai'i is the eighth fastest growing state. Elected to Congress in 1962 are Democrats Inouye (Senate) and Gill and Spark Matsunaga (House). Hiram Fong continues his six-year term as Senator until 1964.

1964 POLITICS: Hiram Fong defeats Tom Gill for the U.S. Senate, while Democrats Matsunaga and Patsy Mink are elected to the House. These last two are reelected in 1966.

1968 POLITICS: Tom Gill defeats Kenneth 'Ī'ī Brown for lieutenant governor in the Democratic primary, setting the stage for a Burns-Gill rivalry in 1970.

1968 The Hawai'i State Capitol building is completed. The State Legislature moves from 'Iolani Palace to this new location.

1968 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: The 1968 Constitutional Convention in Hawai'i makes few changes, but does include an amendment which requires a plebiscite every ten years on whether to hold another constitutional convention.

1970 POLITICS: Organizing college students and disaffected liberals unhappy with Hawai'i's growth and development, Gill runs a strong campaign against Burns but is defeated in Hawai'i's first million-dollar campaign for governor.

1970 to 1980 LAW: A series of land use conflicts forces the state and county governments to respond with environmental laws and systematic planning for wiser use of natural resources. These conflicts include protests and confrontations in Kalama Valley, Chinatown, Ohta Camp, Sand Island, Kaho'olawe, and Waiāhole-Waikāne. Environmental issues such as the pollution of Kāne'ohe Bay, the building of the reef runway, the ownership of the shoreline, and the proposed H-3 freeway further mobilize public opinion. The political system responds with shoreline protection and coastal zone management laws, requirements for environmental impact statements, and tighter controls on development.

1970-present POLITICS: A citizens' participation movement grows in Hawai'i, partly fed by Vietnam War protesters, civil rights activists, and the environmental movement. New groups are formed such as Life of the Land, community associations, and coalitions like the Council of Presidents. These are joined by others interested in procedural

reforms, including the League of Women Voters and Common Cause. On O'ahu, the County begins to experiment with elected neighborhood boards.

1970-present POLITICS: Ethnic Hawaiians begin to organize political action groups, most of which attempt to reform land policies. These groups include The Hawaiians (1970), the Congress of Hawaiian People (1971), Aboriginal Lands of Hawaiian Ancestry (ALOHA) (1972), the Homerule Movement (1973), the Coalition of Native Hawaiian Claims (now the Hawai'i Legal Corporation) (1974), Hui Ala Loa (1975), and the Protect Kaho-'olawe 'Ohana (1976). In 1973, the leaders of these Hawaiian political organizations join to form the Hawaiian Coalition, later renamed the Council of Hawaiian Organizations (COHO). This movement finds legal expression in the creation of the Office of Hawaiian Affairs by the 1978 Constitutional Convention.

1974 POLITICS: George Ariyoshi, Burns's lieutenant governor, is elected governor, defeating Gill and Honolulu Mayor Frank Fasi in the Democratic primary and Republican Randolph Crosley in the general election. He is the first AJA to become governor of a state.

1974 POLITICS: Alu Like, a nonprofit organization established to tap federal funds for which Hawaiians are eligible, is formed as a result of Title VIII, Native American Programs Act.

1976 POLITICS: Spark Matsunaga is elected to the *U.S. Senate, joined in Congress* by Democratic Representatives Cecil Heftel and Daniel Akaka.

1978 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: Hawai'i adopts the first comprehensive state plan in the nation, providing for what Governor Ariyoshi calls a "preferred future."

1978 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: Delegates elected to the 1978 Constitutional Convention divide into factions reflecting Hawai'i's changing social and political life. Some are independents pushing for reforms such as initiative and an open primary; some are fearful of changing the status quo; and some are devoted to improvement in the management of natural resources and the rights of native Hawaiians. The Convention approves over 100 constitutional amendments, including an open primary, numerous environmental provisions, the establishment of the Office of Hawaiian Affairs, and restrictions on government spending. All amendments are approved by voters in the fall elections.

1978 POLITICS: Ariyoshi is reelected. Jean King becomes the first woman lieutenant governor in Hawai'i.

1982 GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE: As a result of the 1980 census, Hawai'i is required to reapportion its legislative districts to reflect the changing population. A reapportionment commission's recommendations are challenged by the Republican Party and several citizens. The court finds the reapportionment plan inadequate and issues its own plan. This plan dramatically changes Hawai'i's legislative districts from multi-member districts (two or more legislators representing the same district) to single-member districts. One feature of the court plan is the formation of certain districts which include parts of different islands. This raises legal problems, and court action continues throughout 1983. A possible further reapportionment may follow before the 1984 election.

1982 POLITICS: Ariyoshi is reelected for his final term. John Waihee, a part-Hawaiian, becomes Hawai'i's youngest elected lieutenant governor.

Activities for the Outline, "The Modern History of Government and Politics"

Activity 1: Introduction to Government and Politics, 1778-1819

a. Read the government and politics outline from 1778 to 1819. Based on the items listed under Politics, Foreign Relations, and Government Structure, write a definition for each of these terms as they are used in the outline.

b. Which of the items between 1778 and 1819 do you feel had an impact on the economic life of the islands? Why?

c. Which of the items between 1778 and 1819 do you feel had the greatest impact on the common people of Hawai'i?

d. How would you describe Kamehameha's relationship with foreigners?

e. Between 1778 and 1819, which political event would you choose as the most important? Why?

Activity 2: Government Reform, 1820-1839

a. Which items between 1820 and 1839 reflect the influence of the missionaries?

b. Based on the items listed as Government Structure between 1820 and 1839, write a short paragraph or essay describing how you think Hawaiians made decisions during this period.

c. Make a list of what you think were the features of Hawaiian government before 1820. Contrast this list with a list of what you think the missionaries wanted Hawaiian government to become. What conflicts can you see between the two lists? What similarities can you see?

Activity 3: Who Came First?

Number the following people in the order in which they influenced Hawai'i's government and politics.

_____ a. William Richards

_____ b. John Burns

_____ c. Sanford Dole

_____ d. Prince Kūhiō

_____ e. Captain Cook

_____ f. Ka'ahumanu

_____ g. George Vancouver

_____ h. George Ariyoshi

_____ i. David Kalākaua

_____ j. Lunalilo

Activity 4: What Came First?

_____ a. The Reciprocity Treaty

_____ b. The Republic of Hawai'i

_____ c. The First Constitution

_____ d. The creation of the position of *kuhina nui*

_____ e. The sale of arms to Kamehameha

_____ f. The first Asian-American Governor

_____ g. The Hawaiian Rehabilitation Act

_____ h. The discovery of Hawai'i by westerners

_____ i. Statehood

_____ j. Overthrow of monarchy

Activity 5: True or False

_____ a. Before the missionaries came, foreigners were not involved in Hawai'i's government.

_____ b. Kamehameha I "ceded" the island of Hawai'i to Great Britain.

_____ c. In the 1830s and 1840s new laws reflected the influence of western religion.

_____ d. The rights of commoners were ignored in the first constitution.

_____ e. The Great Māhele divided the lands according to traditional Hawaiian customs.

_____ f. King Kalākaua's reign was troubled by scandals involving Claus Spreckels.

_____ g. Queen Lili'uokalani was planning to change the constitution when the monarchy was overthrown.

_____ h. The first President of Hawai'i was Hiram Bingham.

_____ i. Prince Kūhiō was elected as Hawai'i's delegate to Congress.

_____ j. In the 1940s, union membership grew dramatically.

_____ k. Statehood did not become an issue until after World War II.

_____ l. John Burns became Hawai'i's first state governer.

_____ m. The citizen participation movement is associated with the 1970s.

_____ n. Dan Inouye became the first Asian-American to be elected governor of a state.

_____ o. The 1978 Constitutional Convention created the Office of Hawaiian Affairs.

Activity 6: The Overthrow of the Monarchy

The overthrow of the Hawaiian monarchy in 1893 is a topic being debated even to this day. Among the important questions being discussed include: Who

was responsible? What exactly happened? Should the U.S. pay native Hawaiians to compensate for the loss of their kingdom?

The purpose of this activity is to better understand the overthrow of the monarchy in 1983.

a. Read the government outline between 1880 and 1899. What items can you find which you think may have contributed to the overthrow? Make a list of these. Now list those items which you think may have delayed or worked against such an event. Also list these.

b. Because the overthrow had implications in Hawai'i's social and economic life, it is important to review all aspects of history for clues to the cause of the overthrow. Read the land use outline from 1880 to 1899. Are there any items you might add to your list of potential causes? How about items which might have helped to delay the overthrow? Add these to your lists.

c. Now review the social outline in the same manner, adding items to your list, if appropriate.

d. Review the economic outline in the same manner, adding items to your list, if appropriate.

e. Review your completed lists. Now choose one statement below that you agree with and write an essay defending it.

(1) Lili'uokalani could have prevented the overthrow. In other words, it was not inevitable.

OR

(2) The overthrow was inevitable, caused by social and economic pressures in Hawaiian society.

OR

(3) The men who overthrew the monarchy were really idealists who wanted to reform a corrupt and ineffective government.

OR

(4) The men who overthrew the monarchy were really opportunists who were acting in their own self interests for economic gain.

OR

(5) Write your own statement and defend it.

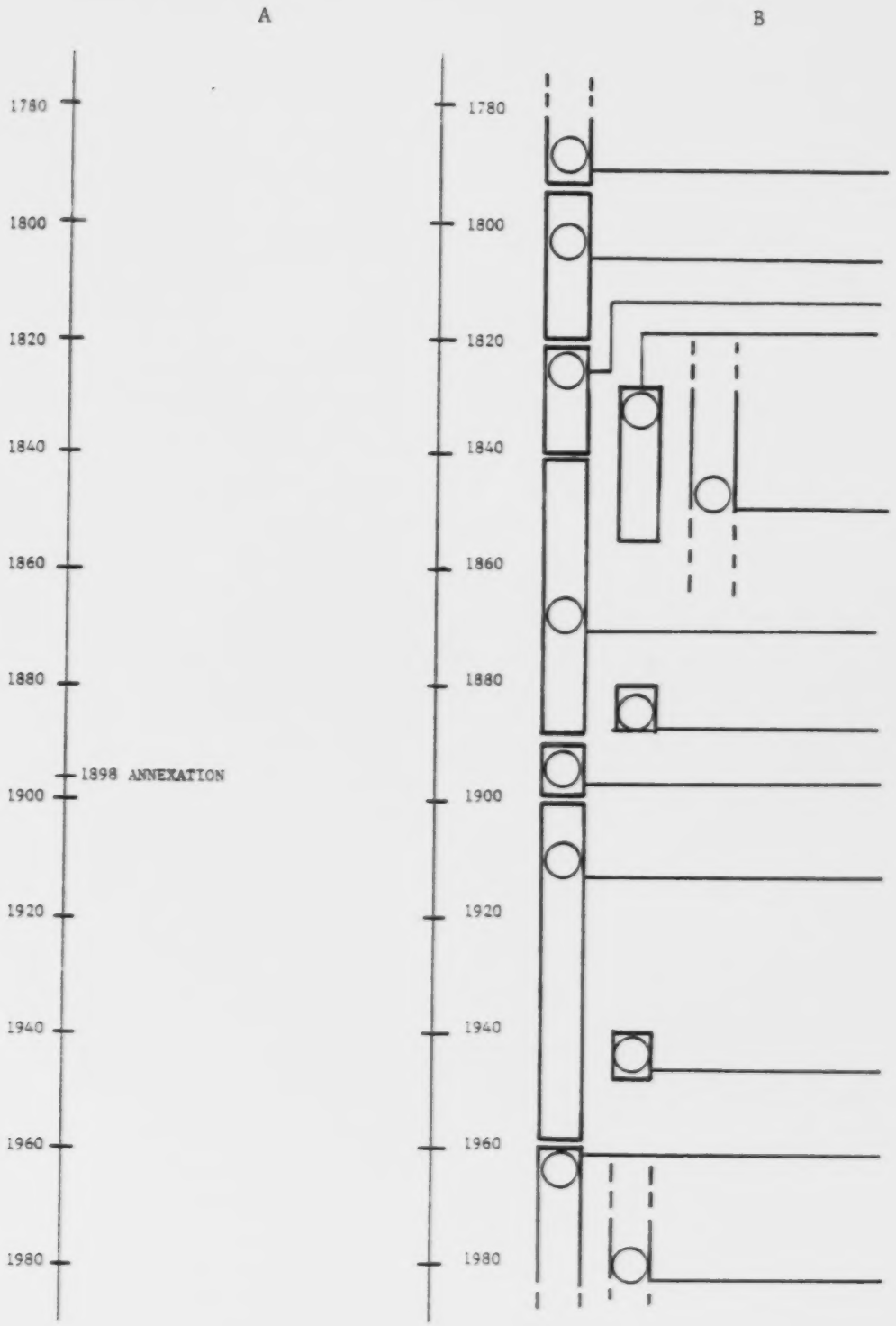
Activity 7: Government and Politics Time Line

A. Plot and label the following events.

a. First constitution
b. Second constitution
c. Third constitution
d. Republic of Hawai'i
e. Reciprocity Treaty
f. Cook comes to Hawai'i.
g. Annexation
h. Congress passes Organic Act.
i. Unification of islands
j. Hawaiian Homes Act
k. Statehood
l. Overthrow of monarchy

B. Label the correct historical periods.

a. Martial law
b. Statehood
c. Era of Warring Chiefs
d. Unified monarchy
e. Territorial government
f. Republic of Hawai'i
g. Reign of Kamehameha III
h. Aristocratic council rule
i. Missionary advisors
j. Constitutional Monarchy
k. Corrupt and unstable cabinets
l. Citizen participation movement


A
B
1780
1800
1820
1840
1860
1880
1898 ANNEXATION
1900
1920
1940
1960
1980

145219

Ruling Monarchs of Hawai'i

Monarch	Period Ruled	Birth-Death	Queen or Prince Consort
Kamehameha I	1795-1819	c. 1758-1819	Keōpuōlani (or Kauika'alaneo) (1778-1823), mother of Kamehameha II and Kamehameha III Ka'ahumanu (1768?-1832), favorite wife of Kamehameha I, no children Kalakua (or Kaheiheimālie) (1778-1842), mother of Kīna'u, grandmother of Kamehameha IV and Kamehameha V and at least 18 others
Kamehameha II (Liholiho 'Iolani)	1819- 1824	1797-1824	Kamāmalu (1802-1824)
Kamehameha III (Kauikeaouli)	1825-1854	1814-1854	Hazeleleponi Kalama (1817?-1870?)
Kamehameha IV (Alexander Liholiho)	1854-1863	1834-1863	Emma Kaleleonalani Rooke (1836-1885)
Kamehameha V (Lot Kapuaīwa)	1863-1872	1830-1872	never married
William C. Lunalilo	1873-1874	1835-1874	never married
David Kalākaua	1874-1891	1836-1891	Kapi'olani (1834-1899)
Lydia Lili'uokalani	1891-1893	1838-1917	John Owen Dominis (1832-1891)

Lili'uokalani was deposed and the Hawaiian Kingdom came to an end on January 17, 1893.

Leaders of Hawai'i

KUHINA NUI

Name	Term of Office	Ruler Served	Birth-Death
Ka'ahumanu I	1819-1832	Kamehameha II & III	1768?-1832
Ka'ahumanu II (KĪna'u)	1832-1839	Kamehameha III	1796?-1839
Kekāuluohi	1839-1845	Kamehameha III	1794-1845
Keoni Ana (John Young)	1845-1855	Kamehameha III & IV	1810-1857
Victoria Kamāmalu	1855-1863	Kamehameha IV	1838-1866
Mataio Kekuanao'a	1863-1864	Kamehameha V	1794-1868

The *kuhina nui* shared political power with the king. The position could only be held by a chief or chiefess of the Ka'ahumanu dynasty. The Constitution of 1864 did not provide for the continuation of this office and so it was formally abolished in 1864.

PRESIDENT OF THE PROVISIONAL GOVERNMENT

Name	Term of Office	Party Affiliation	Birth-Death
Sanford B. Dole	1893-1894	Annexationist	1844-1926

When the monarchy was overthrown in 1893, a provisional government was set up by the revolutionists.

PRESIDENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF HAWAI'I

Name	Term of Office	Party Affiliation	Birth-Death
Sanford B. Dole	1894-1900	Annexationist	1844-1926

The Republic was created when attempts to persuade the U.S. President to annex Hawai'i failed. Despite misgivings about the revolution, the United States did give recognition to this new government. In 1898 Hawai'i was annexed. However, it was not until 1900, under the U.S. Organic Act, that Congress established a territorial form of government.

Governors of Hawai'i

TERRITORIAL GOVERNORS

Name	Term of Office	Party Affiliation	Birth-Death
Sanford B. Dole	1900-1903	Annexationist	1844-1926
George R. Carter	1903-1907	Republican	1866-1933
Walter F. Frear	1907-1913	Republican	1863-1948
Lucius E. Pinkham	1913-1918	Democrat	1850-1922
Charles J. McCarthy	1918-1921	Democrat	1861-1929
Wallace R. Farrington	1921-1929	Republican	1871-1933
Lawrence M. Judd	1929-1934	Republican	1887-1968
Joseph B. Poindexter	1934-1942	Democrat	1869-1951
Ingram M. Stainback	1942-1951	Democrat	1883-1961
Oren E. Long	1951-1953	Democrat	1889-1965
Samuel Wilder King	1953-1957	Republican	1886-1959
William F. Quinn	1957-1959	Republican	1919-

Territorial governors were appointed to office by the President of the United States. When Hawai'i became the fiftieth state on August 21, 1959, governors were elected to office.

STATE GOVERNORS

Name	Term of Office	Party Affiliation	Birth-Death
William F. Quinn	1959-1962	Republican	1919-
John A. Burns	1962-1974	Democrat	1909-1975
George R. Ariyoshi	1974-present	Democrat	1926-

Hawai'i U.S. Congressional Members

TERRITORIAL DELEGATES

Delegate	Term of Office	Party Affiliation	Birth-Death
Robert W. Wilcox	1900-1902	Home Rule	1855-1903
Jonah Kūhiō Kalaniana'ole	1902-1922	Home Rule/Republican	1871-1922
William "Billy" Jarrett	1922-1926	Democrat	1877-1929
Victor S. K. Houston	1926-1932	Republican	1876-1959
Lincoln L. McCandless	1932-1940	Democrat	1859-1940
Samuel W. King	1940-1942	Republican	1886-1959
Joseph R. Farrington	1942-1954	Republican	1897-1954
Elizabeth P. Farrington	1954-1956	Republican	1898-
John A. Burns	1956-1959	Democrat	1909-1975

MEMBERS OF THE SENATE

Senator	Term of Office	Party Affiliation	Birth-Death
Hiram L. Fong	1959-1976	Republican	1907-
Oren E. Long	1959-1962	Democrat	1889-1965
Daniel K. Inouye	1962-present	Democrat	1924-
Spark M. Matsunaga	1976-present	Democrat	1916-

MEMBERS OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

Representative	Term of Office	Party Affiliation	Birth-Death
Daniel K. Inouye	1959-1962	Democrat	1924-
Thomas P. Gill	1962-1964	Democrat	1922-
Spark M. Matsunaga	1962-1976	Democrat	1916-
Patsy T. Mink	1964-1976	Democrat	1927-
Daniel K. Akaka	1976-present	Democrat	1924-
Cecil Heftel	1976-present	Democrat	1924-

Types of Government

Activity

The following is a list of the types of government Hawai'i has had since 1795. Write the name(s) of the monarchs, presidents, or governors associated with each.

Absolute Monarchy (1795-1824)

Constitutional Monarchy (1825-1893)

Provisional Government (1893-1894)

Republic (1894-1900)

Territory (1900-1959)

State (1959-present)

THE ADMISSION ACT

An Act to Provide for the Admission of the State of Hawaii into the Union
(Act of March 18, 1959, Pub L 86-3, 73 Stat 4)

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled. That, subject to the provisions of this Act, and upon issuance of the proclamation required by section 7 (c) of this Act, the State of Hawaii is hereby declared to be a State of the United States of America, is declared admitted into the Union on an equal footing with the other States in all respects whatever, and the constitution formed pursuant to the provisions of the Act of the Territorial Legislature of Hawaii entitled "An Act to provide for a constitutional convention, the adoption of a State constitution, and the forwarding of the same to the Congress of the United States, and appropriating money therefor," approved May 20, 1949 (Act 334, Session Laws of Hawaii, 1949), and adopted by a vote of the people of Hawaii in the election held on November 7, 1950, is hereby found to be republican in form and in conformity with the Constitution of the United States and the principles of the Declaration of Independence, and is hereby accepted, ratified, and confirmed.

The Office of Hawaiian Affairs

Advocating the Creation of OHA

Are you familiar with the Office of Hawaiian Affairs (OHA)? If so, what do you know about it?

Prior to 1968 and again prior to 1978, the voters of Hawai'i approved the convening of Constitutional Conventions composed of elected delegates. The task of the delegates was to propose amendments to the State Constitution, subject to approval by voters.

Below is a speech made by A. Frenchy DeSoto, a delegate to the State Constitutional Convention of 1978. In her speech she urges the other delegates to vote for the creation of OHA.

As you read, consider these questions:

1. What is the tone of the speech?

2. What reasons does Delegate DeSoto give in urging the 1978 Constitutional Convention delegates to create the Office of Hawaiian Affairs?

3. Do you agree with her reasoning? Why or why not?

Delegate DeSoto:

Mr. Chairman, as you well know, and fellow delegates, I was elected from District 21A, the Waianae Coast--the home of the largest Hawaiian community in the State of Hawaii. Forty-five percent of the residents of the Waianae Coast are of Hawaiian ancestry--a Hawaiian constituency of more than 12,000. It is no wonder, then, that Committee Proposal No. 13 is very close to my heart and to my mind.

The primary purpose of proposal 13 is to grant to Hawaiians the right to determine the priorities which will effectuate the betterment of their condition and welfare. Proposal 13 amends Article XI of the Constitution of the State of Hawaii by including in Article XI that portion of the trust created by Section 5(f) of the Admission Act for the benefit of native Hawaiians. It establishes the Office of Hawaiian Affairs and an elected board of trustees to administer the trust created for the benefit of all Hawaiians. The board of trustees is granted the authority to formulate policy relating to the affairs of all Hawaiians. It unites Hawaiians as a people and allows Hawaiians to affirmatively better their condition by giving them the opportunity to assume the trust obligation imposed on the State by Section 5(f) of the Admission Act and to discharge the trust obligation by careful assessment and planning for the future welfare of all Hawaiians. The goal of the Office of Hawaiian Affairs is to address the modern-day problems of Hawaiians which are rooted in as dark and sad a history as will ever mark the annals of time.

Before the advent of the foreigner, the Hawaiians had succeeded in developing a culture that was truly remarkable. They took from the 'Aina and from the sea for sustenance. In the words of Ralph S. Kuykendall, one of the most thorough of the historians of Hawaii, Hawaiians were "a healthy, robust, intelligent, and good tempered folk" who lived religiously, arduously and intelligently.

As evidenced by the feats of the Hokule'a, the pre-Captain Cook Hawaiians were great sailors, traveling long distances in canoes. They were great navigators, with an almost mystic knowledge of the stars. They were great fishermen. They were great

farmers and engineers. In the raising of taro, the Hawaiians perfected a technique of building irrigation ditches, a feat requiring no little industry and ingenuity, which has never been improved on. They were great doctors, skilled in the use of herbs. They were a great and proud people.

The land system before the coming of the foreigner was inseparably a part of religion and government. To destroy one was to destroy the other. The Hawaiians worshipped nature, which expressed itself in a system of rules--kapus--that regulated their daily lives. The islands were divided into kingdoms, each ruled by a king. In land matters, as in many others, the king's words were supreme. Part of the land the king reserved for himself for his own private use; the rest he portioned out to his subordinates, who in turn portioned it out to their subordinates, all the way down to the hoa'āina, who tilled the soil.

In the life the Hawaiians lived before the foreigners, there was no future orientation. The gods were immediate to the common people and so were the kings: they gave directly and took away directly. Tomorrows were only a succession of todays. This was, thought the Hawaiian, as it should be; it was all he knew. If you took away his religion, his government, if you took him away from the 'āina or from the economy that he knew, you destroyed him. And many people did do this.

With the first real influx of foreign invaders near the end of the 18th century, the change from the Hawaiian subsistence economy--and with it the whole cultural structure--to an exchange economy began at an astonishingly accelerated speed. Mr. Chairman, by 1820, when the first missionaries arrived, Kamehameha II had formally abolished the kapu system, thus knocking the props from under the old system of religion. The fur trade, the sandalwood trade, the whaling trade, and their accompanying influences had already infected the native culture and had neglected to provide any healing power.

The new ideas and practices, incomprehensible to the Hawaiians yet powered irresistibly by the superior prestige and force of the invaders, broke the force of the old kapu system. It also weakened the tie between the commoners and the chiefs, who had been their leaders from time immemorial.

By 1840, native morale had all but been destroyed. The new ways may have been superior, but to Hawaiians this was little compensation for the destruction of the old and the familiar. Thousands of Hawaiians died. From the missionary estimate in 1826 to the official Hawaiian census in 1919, the number of full-blooded Hawaiians had decreased from 142,650 to 22,500, while the Hawaiian death rate had correspondingly increased until it exceeded considerably the death rate of any other race inhabiting the Islands at that time.

Mr. Chairman, the Hawaiian had become hopelessly land-less. All the stories that have been told with respect to the Great Mahele and that divisioning of land--finally the inevitable happened: our mō'ī wahine Queen Liliuokalani was dethroned--a bloodless revolution but a queen deposed, a legitimate monarchy overthrown. Many, many injustices have been documented in our history. All these injustices have caused us now to stand in public and bare our souls once more, bare our souls so that someone, someplace will begin to listen.

Mr. Chairman, fellow delegates, if there must be a statement of need before Committee Proposal No. 13 is accepted or adopted by this Convention, then surely the following statistics indicate it: according to the 1975 census updates, the present Hawaiian population is a young one; there are roughly 60,000 Hawaiians, or approximately 54 percent of the total Hawaiian population, who are under the age of 20. It is my dream and the dream of my people that the Hawaiian today be given the opportunity to provide for betterment of the condition and well-being of these young Hawaiians, to address the contemporary problems which Hawaiians face--of crime, inadequate housing conditions, welfare rolls, education. Committee Proposal No. 13, Mr. Chairman, I submit, attempts to build the steps for native Hawaiian people so that they may realize, or at least decide some point in, self-determination.

All kinds of people have helped us in the planning. Your Committee on Hawaiian Affairs begs this Convention to consider, and submits that this native Hawaiian office is essential for the protection and the preservation of the Hawaiian race. I ask all of you to consider this and adopt this proposal. Mahalo.

OHA Created

As you read the following selection, consider these questions:

1. What is a constitutional amendment? (What is a constitution? What is an amendment?)

2. There are two types of laws: constitutional law and statutory law. What is the difference between them?

3. According to the *Hawai'i Revised Statutes* (which is a compilation of all statutory laws in Hawai'i), what is the general purpose of OHA?

4. How does OHA go about reaching its goals?

5. Supporters of OHA say that state monies are rightly being used to run the operations of OHA. Read the selection, "The Crown Lands, after the Great Māhele," to find the basis for this statement.

An amendment to the State Constitution, creating OHA, was proposed by the 1978 Constitutional Convention. The amendment was ratified later that year by the voters, and became Article XII, Sections 4, 5, and 6 of the State Constitution.

According to the Hawai'i Revised Statutes, which more specifically spell out the Constitutional mandate, the *purposes* of OHA include:

> [§ 10-3, 3] serving as the principle public agency in the state responsible for the performance, development, and coordination of programs and activities relating to native Hawaiians and Hawaiians;
>
> [§ 10-3, 4] assessing the policies and practices of other agencies impacting on . . . and conducting advocacy efforts for native Hawaiians and Hawaiians;
>
> [§ 10-3, 5] applying for, receiving, and disbursing grants and donations from all sources for Hawaiian programs and services; and
>
> [§ 10-3, 6] serving as the receptacle of reparations.

The *powers* granted to the Office include:

> [§ 10-4, 2] to acquire in any lawful manner any property, real, personal, or mixed . . . or any interest . . . to hold, maintain, use and operate . . . and sell, lease, or otherwise dispose . . . to carry out its purpose;

[§ 10-4, 4] to enter into and perform such contracts, leases, cooperative agreements or other transactions with any agency or instrumentality of the United States, or with the state, or with any political subdivision thereof, or with any person, firm, association, or corporation, as may be necessary in the conduct of its business . . .;

[§ 10-5, 1] to manage, invest, and administer the proceeds from the sale or other disposition of lands, natural resources, minerals, and income derived from whatever sources for Hawaiians . . .;

[§ 10-5, 3] to collect, receive, deposit, withdraw, and invest money and property on behalf of the Office;

[§ 10-5, 7] to provide grants to public and private agencies for pilot projects, demonstrations, or both . . .; and

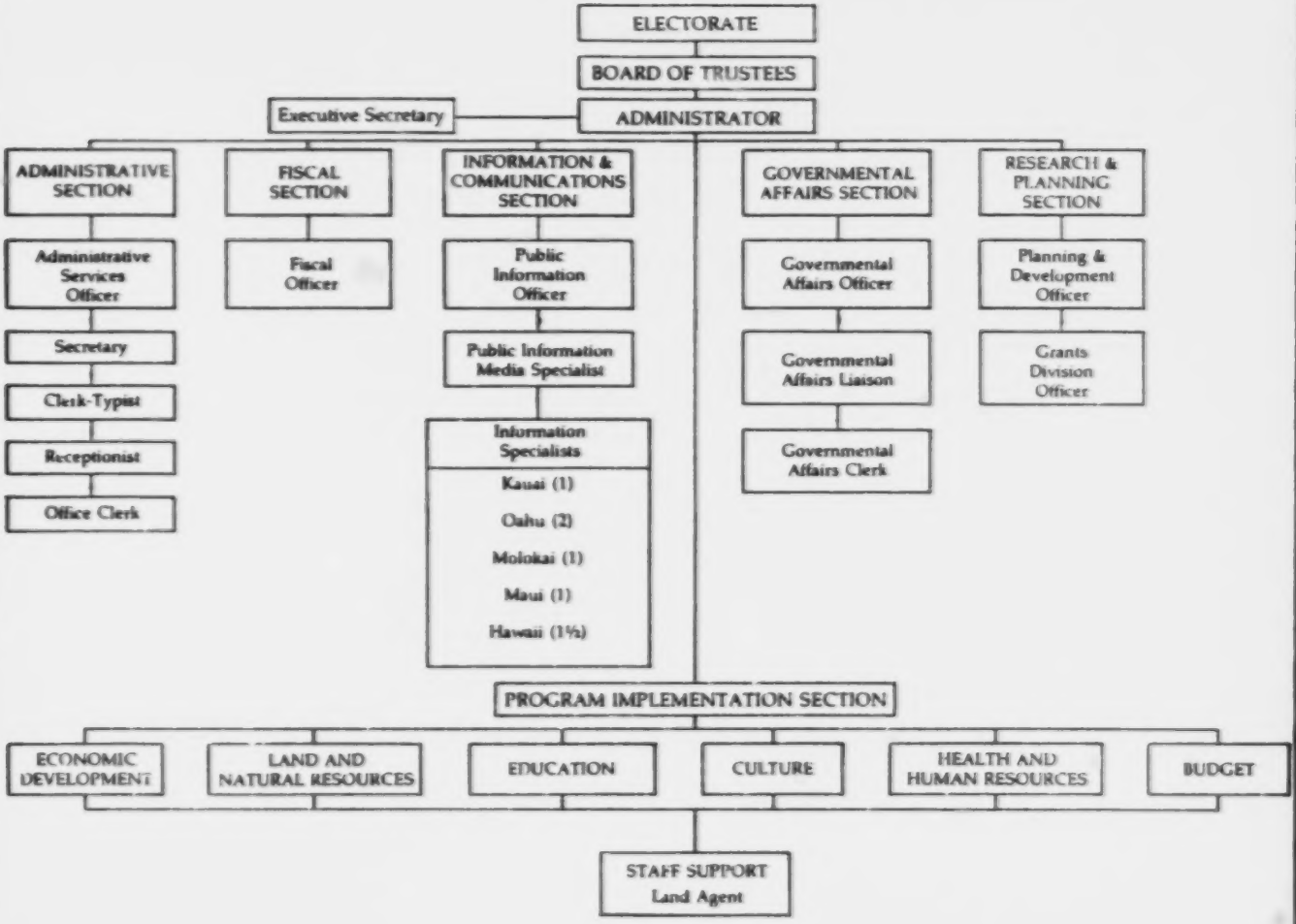
[§ 10-5, 8] to make available technical and financial assistance and advisory services to any agency or private organization for Hawaiian programs . . .

OHA has the authority to work with various levels of government: federal agencies, state departments, and county agencies.

The Office is headed by a nine member Board of Trustees with at least one representative from the islands of Kaua'i, O'ahu, Moloka'i, Maui, and Hawai'i. Those Trustees must be Hawaiian and are elected by qualified voters who are Hawaiians. The Office's chief executive officer is an Administrator who is appointed by a majority of the Board of Trustees and serves at its pleasure.

There are nine divisions within the Office: Administrative, Public Information, Governmental Affairs, Planning and Development, Cultural Affairs, Human Services, Land and Natural Resources, Economic Development, and Community Affairs. Each division is headed by an administrator with the title of "Officer." Those officers report directly to the Administrator of the Office of Hawaiian Affairs. (See "Organizational Chart for OHA.")

ORGANIZATIONAL CHART FOR OHA



Summary of OHA

The delegates to the 1978 Constitutional Convention proposed to set up OHA as a result of the following legal and historical precedents:

1. Since the fall of the Constitutional Monarchy in 1893, Hawaiians had had less and less of a voice in government.

2. The boards and commissions set up to help Hawaiians were either appointed by courts, the Legislature, or the Governor, and not elected by Hawaiians themselves.

3. The income from the public land trust was not being used to directly benefit Hawaiians.

4. Hawaiians needed a state agency that would represent their concerns and coordinate programs for all of them.

Thus the establishment of OHA was an attempt to

1. give Hawaiians more of a voice in government;

2. accord to them the right to choose their representatives through the election of OHA trustees;

3. secure for them a pro rata portion of the public land trust; and

4. to offer representation of all Hawaiians.

At OHA, the trustees and staff work as advocates for the Hawaiian community. They work for the welfare of all Hawaiians and try to represent their best interests at the Legislature, with other state agencies, and with community organizations.

TRUSTEES OF THE OFFICE OF HAWAIIAN AFFAIRS

1980-82 Term

Trustees	Representing
A. Frenchy DeSoto (Chairperson)	Trustee-At-Large
Moses K. Keale, Sr. (Vice Chairperson)	Kaua'i and Ni'ihau
Peter K. Apo	O'ahu
Roy L. Benham	Trustee-At-Large
Rodney K. Burgess, III	Trustee-At-Large
Thomas K. Kaulukukui, Sr.	Trustee-At-Large
Joseph G. Kealoha, Jr.	Maui
Walter L. Ritte, Jr.	Moloka'i
A. Leiomalama Solomon	Hawai'i
Edwin Auld (Appointed Administrator)	

1982-84 Term

Trustees	Representing
Joseph G. Kealoha, Jr. (Chairperson)	Maui
Rodney K. Burgess, III (Vice Chairperson)	Trustee-At-Large
Hayden Burgess	O'ahu
Piilani C. Desha	Hawai'i
Rockne C. Freitas	Trustee-At-Large
Thomas K. Kaulukukui, Sr.	Trustee-At-Large
Moses K. Keale, Sr.	Kaua'i and Ni'ihau
Gard Kealoha	Trustee-At-Large
Walter L. Ritte, Jr.	Moloka'i
T. C. Yim (Appointed Administrator)	

PRECINCTS AND DISTRICTS WITH GREATEST NUMBER OF
REGISTERED OHA HAWAIIAN VOTERS
1980 ELECTION[1]

	Total Voters	OHA Hawaiian Voters[2]	Non-Hawaiian Voters	OHA Hawaiian Voters as % of Total Voters
Precinct				
27-1 Ni'ihau	168	147	21	88
21-3 Nānākuli	4,833	1,839	2,994	38
26-3 Waimānalo	5,655	2,111	3,544	37
6-3/6 Moloka'i	4,241	1,378	2,863	32
21-1 Wai'anae	3,411	987	2,424	29
21-2 Mā'ili	4,296	1,077	3,219	25
District				
26 Waimānalo, Enchanted Lake	11,245	2,898	8,347	26
21 Wai'anae, Mā'ili, Nānākuli	24,046	6,077	17,969	25

1. Reapportionments occurred in 1982 so present district/precinct lines are not the same as that indicated on the chart above.
2. Refers to those Hawaiians who registered to vote in the Office of Hawaiian Affairs trustees' election. It does not necessarily include all Hawaiian registered voters.

How Akamai Are You, Politically?

Activity

See how many blanks you can fill. For questions you cannot answer, you might want to call the Lieutenant Governor's office if you live on O'ahu. You can call the City Clerk's office if you live on the neighbor islands.

I am a citizen of the State of Hawai'i. My U.S. Senator is _____,

who is of the _____ Party. My other U.S. Senator is

_____ who is of the _____ Party.

Representing me in the U.S. House of Representatives is _____,

who is of the _____ Party. The other U.S. Representative for

Hawai'i is _____ of the _____ Party.

The Governor of Hawai'i is _____, of the _____

Party. The Lieutenant Governor is _____, of the _____

Party.

As a member of the _____ State Senatorial District, I have as

my State Senator, _____, who is of the _____

Party. As a member of the _____ State House of Representative

District, I have representing me in the State House, _____, who

is of the _____ Party.

As a citizen of _____ County, I have representing me at the City

Council, _____, who is of the _____ Party. The

Mayor of my County is _____, who is of the _____

Party.

"None of the Above"

In 1978 Hawai'i's State Constitutional Convention considered hundreds of proposed amendments to our State Constitution. One of the proposals was to add "None of the Above" to the list of candidates on every ballot.

As you read the arguments for and against this proposal, try to answer the following questions for yourself:

1. What are the main arguments for "None of the Above"?
2. What are the main arguments against it?
3. Which arguments do you find most convincing?
4. Which arguments do you find to be most idealistic? Most practical?
5. How would you have voted? Why?

Arguments for the Proposal

I would like to speak in favor of this amendment. This amendment would add "None of the Above" below the names of candidates for any office in the State. Though "None of the Above" would have no official weight in determining the outcome of elections, the amendment would mandate that the number of votes for "None of the Above" be listed with all official election results.

I support passage of this amendment because, first, this addition to the ballot provides for better interpretation of election results. It would have an effect similar to that achieved by adding "None" or "Undecided" to a public opinion survey. Without the added clarity of these extra choices, any such survey would be considered scientifically invalid. As it is now, when a candidate counts his votes, there are a number of ways he can interpret them; besides those that support him, they include votes against another candidate, votes from those who don't care and those voting for the "lesser of two evils." The vote cannot be accurately interpreted because the accumulation of confounding ideas and factors surrounding the votes are not considered in the balloting process. All persons involved in the balloting process will benefit from such added clarity.

With "None of the Above" added to the ballot, all the votes for any one candidate may at last be interpreted positively as support. Candidates will be able to fairly gauge their strength in their districts. The added clarity may even help the political parties determine whether their candidates are being supported or rejected by party members and determine which platform is faring best. This could conceivably strengthen the two-party system.

In lobbying for this proposal, I have heard one skeptical and negative-thinking person argue that "None of the Above" will hurt newcomers because they are the ones who benefit from votes cast primarily against the incumbent. I would not be surprised if this is of great concern to a large number of delegates. I cannot deny that there are newcomers this year who will pick up a few votes simply because the people are not happy with the incumbent. But can anyone deny that incumbents will pick up a number of votes because voters are not happy with the newcomers? Dissatisfaction runs both ways.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

I would add that because of the random way that votes are cast against an incumbent in a multimember district, or where there are many candidates, no candidate will win an election simply because of negative voting. To win any election, a newcomer has the burden of proof that he is indeed a better candidate; this would not change with "None of the Above" added--this is the best strategy now. But with "None of the Above," candidates would be ill-advised to stress only the negative aspects of another candidate, because all they would encourage would be votes for "None of the Above" and not for themselves. Because the negative votes in an election might be better centralized under "None" in the results, a potential newcomer will be able to easily see the weakness in an incumbent's position and be encouraged to try and take advantage of that and sell himself as a positive alternative. This argument is based on the assumption that people carry only a nebulous idea of who they will vote for into the polls. If they have a generally negative feeling about the incumbent, they will choose a newcomer at random. It is this problem with the system--where people do have only vague ideas of the candidates--that "None of the Above" might address by forcing candidates not to rely on anything but their own positive qualities in seeking office. All I see are the positive aspects of this proposal.

Finally, we should keep in mind that candidates are chosen or choose to be on the ballot for many reasons, including the party's choices, attractiveness or power of the office and even the pay. There will be times, no doubt, when voters honestly feel that none of the candidates will represent them well, as they do not share the voters' orientation. These people have a choice now of either voting for someone unacceptable or not voting at all. I submit that this is no choice. "None of the Above" will give these people a voice. Besides drawing these people back to the polls, it may let elected officials know that there are a number of people in the community who do vote and may vote him out of office should a more suitable candidate come along. Perhaps some of these officials will make themselves a little more suitable.

* * *

The term "easy way out" has been used against "None of the Above." I really think this phrase is best used to support it. "Easy way out" seems to imply that voters are trapped in the system and should be let out. Besides there are thousands of eligible voters who take the easy way out right now because they don't vote.

Also, I really don't see this as a negative idea. If it was, it would not be my intention to place it as an idea to this Convention's package. We can't deny that there are people with negative feelings, but they deserve a vote too--perhaps not a majority vote but nevertheless a vote. It's harmless and it may bring back people by a valid and significant expression, and I feel that this would be a step in the right direction. Also, it may bring about positive change in the campaign process where a candidate could no longer benefit simply by attacking his opponent. If he does, voters would most likely vote for "None of the Above" and not for the candidate.

* * *

Mr. Chairman, I rise to speak in favor of this amendment. Although I do not believe it is the entire solution to the problem, I think it is a step in the right direction. I remember some years ago there was a commentary by Walter Cronkite in connection with the election of the late Senator Humphrey and former President Nixon; and he indicated the tremendously large number of people who stayed away from the polls and simply didn't vote and he construed that to mean a positive kind of disillusionment in the system. That kind of result, where individuals totally stay away from the polls, is a completely negative thing and I think it behooves us to do everything in our power to move people in the direction of the polls--even if, in this instance, the vote they pass will be an official indication that they are not happy with the individuals on the ballot.

But I think we are all deluding outselves if we believe that this is going to solve the problem. There's only one way to get candidates of excellence on the ballot, but if all of us sit at home and are armchair complainers

and do nothing about it, that's the problem we're going to have to face on a consistent basis. The way to get candidates of excellence is—first of all, to get into the party system and work for candidates of excellence who may not have the money or wherewithal themselves, climb the hills for them and help them go door to door if you believe that these individuals have the capacity; and that is the way we will see people on the ballot who are a reflection of what we feel are excellent public servants.

Arguments against the Proposal

Your "skeptical and negative-thinking person" rises to speak against this. I would ask you to consider that this is not a frivolous or innocuous amendment and I'm very appreciative that it has been brought to this body, because I think it focuses on a key tenet of the whole democratic system, and that is—why do we go to vote? Do we go to vote for public opinion polls or do we go to vote to choose people to serve us? I would ask you to consider what are the assumptions of including "None of the Above" on a ballot.

The first appears to be that most voters really are well informed on the issues and the candidates. I must admit that I am a little skeptical of this. First of all, I look at the opportunities for voters to be very well informed on all the issues and all the candidates: first is sign-waving—that does not create a well-informed electorate; the second is brochures, with family pictures, gimmicky phrases—I do not regard that as necessarily the vehicle for a well-informed electorate on every issue and every candidate; and perhaps, if we're lucky, a short-lived conversation at the door if you happen to live in a district where the candidate does and can go door to door. The Sunday supplement which the community had the advantage of reading before this Constitutional Convention is not available for our general elections, and I would submit that there is little evidence that the overwhelming majority of voters really have the opportunity to be very well informed on who their candidates are and what they think on all the issues.

The second assumption, I believe, is that the impact of this will fall equally on all candidates. I doubt it. I think that this will be a definite advantage to incumbents. First of all, incumbents have more money to print and distribute information on themselves and on their positions; to the extent that an incumbent has resources far and above a new candidate—this leads us to say we must look only at specifics and assume that the voters are going to know all our positions and everything—to that extent, I think, this does give an advantage to an incumbent.

Secondly, and this is perhaps the most important concern that I have, incumbents begin with a solid, hard-core group of supporters. This is true in every race and it is the task of the newer candidates to approach the dissatisfied voter, the marginal voter, the voter who may or may not vote, to win their support. I believe that inclusion of "None of the Above" will encourage some of the voters, perhaps many of the voters, which the new candidate is competing for, to say—well, I don't really know that much about the newcomer, I don't really know that much about the incumbent, I have a general dissatisfaction with the way things are going, they're all a bunch of crooks, "None of the Above." It will encourage voters to vote their frustration rather than their judgment. I think that the key to our system is the responsibility of those who are going to vote to go to the polls and to be forced to make a judgment—this person over that person, this person's character over that person's character, this person's opinions over that person's opinions. I think that "None of the Above" is a blanket approach to expressing frustration. It is very seductive to label all candidates for an office as unworthy. It is very tempting to say—boy, there's really not anything that I really like about any of these candidates, there's something wrong with all of them, I'll vote "None of the Above." But remember, the incumbent has a hard-core group of supporters who will always go out and vote for him. It's the newcomer who is trying to attract attention.

Even worse, my fellow delegates, I think that once it becomes well known that the voter has an easy out, that the voter can go to the polls and not even pay attention to the campaigning that is going on around him before the election, what incentive will there be for one to examine the literature of a newcomer, for one to question the candidates? If one begins with a basic dissatisfaction and the basic knowledge that he won't have to go out and choose the person to represent him, then I think we'll have a much less informed electorate and a less responsible electorate. I believe that evaluation of the people and issues depends upon that responsibility, the recognition in every citizen that makes him say—yes, in a few days I am going to have to make a choice. Maybe I'd better save a few of these brochures. Maybe when that candidate comes, I'd better ask him a question about what I'm interested in, because I'm not going to have the option of calling them all unworthy. I must choose between possibly the best of—or the worst of—the evils. But that is what the democratic system is—the choosing of people.

I believe that it is the clear responsibility of every voter to reflect on how he will vote, to make the choice. I believe that "None of the Above" will institutionalize negativism, an irresponsibility and a passivity on the part of the voters. I think it is an alternative that we are increasingly faced with in an overconsumptive TV generation, that we're all victims of: don't pay attention, take the easy solution, choose the simple attitude, don't worry about making the hard decision, the hard judgment, no need to read the literature, no need to question the candidates. I believe that this is an alternative that will benefit incumbents and I believe we should seriously consider the general direction that our society is going toward—passivity, oversimplification, toward the lack of any need to read and reflect, and the lack of any need to adequately judge one candidate or another. I think for the larger races—where you have television commercials and all that—it's very difficult to move into the area of reasoned, careful judgment. But especially for the smaller races, where the contact of the voter with the not well financed newcomer is very minimal, where there is voter dissatisfaction —that general feeling that something is wrong in the capitol or at city hall —it is so tempting to reach out and say they are all unworthy, "None of the Above," all politicians are crooks. I grew up in a family where that attitude was there; I do not believe it is something that should be encouraged, I do not believe that we should regard the election ballot as something of a scientific poll on the issues. It is a choice of servants, of public servants, and we must lay that responsibility as directly as we can on each and every citizen. And for that reason, with all due respect to the author of this, I ask you to reject this amendment.

"None of the Above" was successfully added to the Convention's approved recommendations during the Committee of the Whole debates by a narrow vote of 48 for, 47 against, and 7 excused. The next step, however, was to pass the Second Reading. Heavy lobbying by opponents between the Committee of the Whole Debates and the Second Reading convinced several delegates to change their vote. During the Second Reading the Convention voted to delete "None of the Above" from its official recommendations to the voters. The vote during the Second Reading was 52 against, 44 for, and 6 excused. Apparently the Convention agreed with arguments such as the following.

I'd like you to think just for a moment of election day and the role that it plays in the democratic experience. After all the hooplas, the sign-waving, the frantic efforts to attract attention, it all ends the day before and election day is strangely quiet, and for me it always takes on a sense of solemnity, a sort of mutual respect to send on all the political candidates. There is a recognition of the exercise of a very precious freedom. Each voter

is awesomely equal on that day and each voter, in the privacy of his conscience, makes a free and equal choice. And that choice, in a representative system, is a choice of people. It is a very subjective, private and human act. It involves every human strength, prejudice, insight and judgment, and the judgment we are asking people to make is of the character, the leadership, the effectiveness, the opinions and the faults of a fellow citizen to represent us. I find this strangely exciting and something that I think dignifies all of us. But the dignity and the nobility of the democratic process is laid squarely on the shoulders of every single person. We say to each and every person--here is your power, your right, your responsibility, now exercise it. I submit to you that the only effective exercise of that power, that right and that responsibility is by voting for a person to represent you, by making the hard choices. This person versus that person, one candidate over another, this is the choice that you make in an election. We are saying to every citizen--you are free and intelligent, there shall be no escape, no denial of your duties, no easy way out. It is not a therapeutic exercise. There are no excuses in a democracy. Equality and power are granted only with this duty.

I want to preserve the dignity of the election process. I want to hold each and every citizen to that duty, and I want a responsible democratic community.

Should We Limit the Number of Bills?

Questions

1. Based on the following table, what is the average percentage of bills enacted into law from 1969-1980 during regular (not special) sessions?

2. Do you think the legislative process is efficient?

3. What reasons can you think of for limiting the number of bills introduced by individual legislators?

4. What reasons can you think of for not limiting the number of bills?

5. What do you think is the relationship between the number of bills introduced and the number of ideas considered?

6. What do you think is the relationship between the number of bills introduced and insincere efforts to influence voters?

NUMBER OF BILLS INTRODUCED INTO THE HAWAI'I LEGISLATURE AND ENACTED, 1960-1980

Year of Session	Number of Bills Introduced			Number Enacted	Percent of Introduced Bills Enacted
	House	Senate	Total		
1960 (Budget)[1]	656	251	907	26	29.0
1960 (Special)	21	14	35	12	34.3
1961	1,489	1,132	2,621	195	7.4
1962 (Budget)	725	114	939	32	3.8
1963	1,451	1,225	2,676	207	7.7
1964 (Budget)	588	365	953	64	6.7
1965	1,370	1,072	2,442	281	11.5
1966 (Budget)	548	356	904	50	5.5
1967	1,014	1,148	2,162	307	14.2
1968 (Budget)	502	460	962	75	9.8
1969	1,259	1,129	2,388	281	11.8
1970	903	873	1,776	214	12.0
1971	1,635	1,315	2,950	215	7.3
1972	985	791	1,776	205	11.5
1973	2,043	1,390	3,433	220	6.4
1974 (Special)[2]	0	0	0	1	100.0
1975	1,990	1,733	3,723	199	5.3
1976	1,468	1,285	2,753	242	8.8
1977	1,765	1,532	3,297	212	6.4
1977 (Special)	16	5	21	21	100.0
1978	1,336	1,090	2,426	248	10.2
1979	1,759	1,852	3,584	230	6.4
1980	1,295	1,321	2,616	309	11.8

1. Budget sessions were abolished by the 1969 legislature; thereafter it met in annual 60 day sessions.

2. The 1974 Special Session was called to consider only one bill initiated by the governor.

INTERVIEW / Alan Waldman

Adm. Robert Long

The top military man in the Pacific talks about nukes, Kahoolawe and Russia's Far East strategy

Adm. Robert L.J. Long is Commander in Chief Pacific (CINCPAC) and as such is in charge of all U.S. armed forces in the Pacific command area. From his command center at Camp Smith—which, with its huge information screens and rows of desks with computer consoles, looks more like a NASA launch center than the War Room depicted in Dr. Strangelove*—he orders the destinies of Army, Navy, Air Force and Marine forces throughout an enormous area stretching from the west coast of North America to the east coast of Africa.*

Long commands 315,000 men-and women-at-arms (vs. 750,000 Russians in the USSR's Eastern command, most of whom are deployed along the Sino-Soviet border), 982 jet aircraft (vs. the Russians' 2,000), six aircraft carriers (vs. one), 96 combat ships (vs. 82) and 50 nuclear submarines (vs. about 70). His command includes the entire Pacific and Indian Oceans and encompasses over 100 million square miles. Long reports to the secretary of defense through the chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff.

Military forces have been in Hawaii for quite a while. The U.S. Navy passed a memorable five months here in 1826, in which time the sailors contributed to more than a few shore riots. American fighting forces established their first official foothold here in 1898, when 1,300 soldiers set up camp in Kapiolani Park. From 1941-44 the Islands were ruled by martial law. Over the past decade the military and dependent population of Hawaii has averaged about 124,000 and the Pacific command estimates that this year's military contribution to the total Hawaiian economy will exceed $1.8 billion.

Robert Long was born in Kansas City, Missouri, and attended Kansas City Junior College, Washington University (St. Louis) and the U.S. Naval Academy. He was commissioned in June 1943 and participated in numerous western Pacific operations aboard USS Colorado, *earning the Bronze Star medal. After the war he attended submarine school, served aboard USS* Corsair, *went to the Naval War College, headed the Submarine Weapons Readiness Section in the office of the Chief of Naval Operations and was a commander aboard the submarines USS* Sea Leopard, *USS* Patrick Henry *and USS* Casimir Pulaski.

His steady rise through the ranks included a stint in Adm. Hyman Rickover's office at the U.S. Atomic Energy Commission, service as deputy commander for Fleet Maintenance and Logistics Support, as commander of the U.S. Atlantic Fleet Submarine Force, as deputy chief of Naval Operations (submarine warfare) and as vice chief of Naval Operations. His decorations include two Distinguished Service Medals, the Legion of Merit with two gold stars, and the Bronze Star.

In October 1979 he became Commander in Chief Pacific. Long is the highest ranking U.S. government official in the state of Hawaii and is therefore the person who hosts heads of state and other visiting dignitaries.

Described as a man who is that rare combination—both a realist and an intellectual—Robert Long is said to be well respected in Washington and in many foreign capitals. Secretary of Defense Weinberger is said to think the world of him, which may be why Long is the first CINCPAC in a long time whose tenure was extended past the traditional retirement age for admirals—62.

HONOLULU: Admiral Long, do you think Hawaii is a prime Soviet military target?

LONG: I do not think it is a more prime strategic target than any other large city in the United States. The presence of CINCPAC here is clearly

something, but I'm sure the Soviets are aware that CINCPAC has alternate command facilities that would permit this command to operate even if this building were destroyed.

HONOLULU: Do we expect to see much Russian activity in the waters off Hawaii?

LONG: The Russians periodically come to Hawaiian waters. Just a few months ago they had intelligence-gathering ships in the international waters just off Pearl Harbor. Periodically they ask permission to put their oceanographic ships into Hawaiian ports. In September they had three of them dock at Hilo. It has now been over a year since they had a large combat force that made the trip all the way around to Alaska and then down the coast, transiting between Maui and the Big Island on the way home. I would anticipate that they will continue to use their ships in Hawaiian waters and also off the west coast of the United States. It is no secret that they operate nuclear-powered submarines off that coast every day. At the present time they have an intelligence-collecting ship off the Straits of Juan de Fuca, between Washington state and Vancouver Island, where we are just about to deploy our newest Trident missile submarine. We also believe there is a Soviet submarine acting in conjunction with that spy ship. They are operating in international waters, and therefore the United States cannot object.

HONOLULU: You've been quoted as favoring the United States putting stricter limits on Soviet access to our ports.

LONG: Yes, I have. I think that periodically we need to review which ports we allow the Soviets to use. Clearly, it is much easier for their ships visiting our ports to gain valuable information than it is for our ships visiting their ports. Both the Soviets and the United States have certain ports which we permit the other to visit, but we need to continuously review the list and make sure they are all still OK and that the Soviet use of them is proper.

HONOLULU: Many Hawaii residents are nervous about the storage of nuclear weapons at West Loch in Pearl Harbor. What can you say to make them less anxious?

LONG: First of all, I would have to give you the standard response, and that is that it is the policy of the United States to neither confirm nor deny the presence of nuclear weapons —at West Loch or any other site. But this goes back to the basic question of whether the United States should have nuclear weapons at all. We cannot redo history. Nuclear weapons are awesome, they're terrible, they're horribly destructive and I think I can speak for most of the senior military people today when I say we would like to see a major reduction in those weapons. However, the mere presence of those weapons acts as a powerful political force. If we allow the Soviets to have nuclear superiority, we not only increase the probability of a nuclear war but we also put ourselves at a great disadvantage in confrontations of a lesser nature. So we need to maintain a nuclear balance while trying to get them to the bargaining table and negotiate meaningful reductions. If we did not have nuclear weapons, we'd be at a serious disadvantage. It would be just the same as you and I playing poker: If I saw that you had four aces, the chances are I would be very reluctant to call your hand. Also, when we discuss freezing or reducing the numbers of nuclear weapons, we must be certain that there is adequate verification so that we are sure the Soviets are doing what they say.

HONOLULU: Anti-nuclear activists claim that there are over 3,000 nuclear weapons stored just off the glide path from Honolulu International Airport and that therefore there is the danger of a nuclear explosion if a jumbo jet were to crash into them. Now without confirming or denying the presence of nuclear weapons on Oahu, what can you say that might reassure Honolulu residents who believe nuclear weapons are stored here?

LONG: Well, I have spent quite a few years of my Navy career having command of two nuclear-powered ballistic missile submarines, having command over the submarine force in the Atlantic, and serving as deputy chief of Naval Operations for submarine warfare, so I have been very much involved with nuclear weapons. And without getting into the question of where they are stored, I can assure you that great care is taken in the design and the construction of nuclear weapons and in the storage of them in order that they are almost inert in their storage condition. There are several points of safety that are incorporated into the design so that, for example, you could take some of these stored nuclear weapons and drop them from airplanes or high buildings and you would possibly break them up but there would be zero possibility of any nuclear reaction.

HONOLULU: If a plane crashed into a site where nuclear weapons were stored would explosions result?

LONG: No.

HONOLULU: Radiation leakage?

LONG: No. That would not be a cause of a nuclear incident per se.

HONOLULU: How dangerous is the Trident nuclear sub? I've been told that if any one of the 15 Tridents we are building struck a reef or was hit and leaked radioactive material the oceans could be permanently damaged. Trident foes are very frightened of Trident.

LONG: Yes, the Trident submarine is the largest submarine the United States has built. One is operational, one is undergoing sea trials, four others are to be delivered by 1987 and nine have now been funded by Congress. Their propulsion plant is being built with the same standards of safety and care that the other nuclear propulsion plants have been built with. The people are specially selected and trained. The operating standards of those ships are as high as in any group in the United States: very, very high. Those submarines carry 24 ballistic missiles on them, each of which has a dozen nuclear warheads, but those warheads per se have the same safety characteristics that we just discussed previously, so that in a fire, collision or explosion there would not be any chance of a nuclear incident. If a Trident were to run aground it would be just like any

other submarine running aground: It would ruin the whole day for its skipper and crew, but there would not be any nuclear radiation released. There have been quite a few submarine accidents at sea. Submarines periodically have hit the bottom or something, but that is not really a cause for worry for the American public.

HONOLULU: I have one more nuclear question. Does the presence of our nuclear vessels in Pacific ports cause any problems for us? I understand that Fiji doesn't permit them and the Japanese protest their presence. Should a nation like Fiji have the right to keep nuclear carriers and the risk of nuclear accident out of its ports?

LONG: Let's put it this way. The United States has been operating nuclear-powered ships for about 25 years, from the time that *Nautilus* went to sea. That's over 2,400 reactor years of operation without any significant accident. So there's a long history of safe operation. Whenever the United States puts a nuclear-powered ship into any port, there is a reactor safeguards examination of that port and of that berthing area. The same standards are used for any foreign port visit as for a United States port visit. In other words, we would never put one of our nuclear-powered ships in a foreign port if we would not put it in our own port. Now, having said that, and recognizing that there are over 50 countries in the world that we have visited with our nuclear-powered ships, there are still some countries that have some concern about this. Those are sovereign countries and the United States cannot and should not be telling them what to do. We are in a dialogue with some of those countries to explain to them the need to go into port, the safety aspects, the possibility of there being an accident, the indemnification, the procedures that would be used and all that. We also hope they recognize that over one-third of the US Navy combatant ships are now nuclear-powered. Those ships are, in general, deployed forward, protecting their interests and ours.

It is important that our ships have the ability to go into port for welfare, recreation and logistic purposes, because I haven't found any sailor yet who liked to spend all his time at sea.

HONOLULU: All our allies realize the importance of the United States having nuclear weapons and nuclear-powered vessels, and every town realizes the importance of having a garbage dump, but nobody wants it next to *their* house. Now if we're in a situation where small nations don't want our nuclear ships and weapons in their ports, will this ultimately work a hardship for us or are we making progress in persuading these governments to change their minds?

LONG: I think that over the past 20 years, since I've been involved with nuclear-powered ships, there has been a steadily increasing acceptance of nuclear-powered ships in foreign ports. One of the latest positive developments was that both the government and the opposition leaders in Australia are now agreed that United States ships can visit, regardless of their propulsion. New Zealand allows us to visit. So there is a growing acceptance. But I'll not deceive you: There are still some countries that are opposed to anything nuclear. It is very important that we try to explain to those countries that they should differentiate between the various aspects of the nuclear issue. There's nuclear dumping, nuclear power, nuclear testing and nuclear weapons, and they all have different ramifications. So it's important that if a country is going to take an anti-nuclear stand that they should, if possible, separate out just what part of the nuclear equation they don't like. For some years now, for example, the United States has been strongly opposed to nuclear testing in the atmosphere. As a matter of fact, we've been making very vigorous efforts to get agreements so we can essentially eliminate all nuclear testing. Nuclear dumping, as you well know, is one of the hot issues we face in the United States. What should we do with the nuclear waste that we generate? It's such a debatable question as to what to do with the nuclear fuel cells that come out of nuclear reactors that we currently store most of them in big swimming pools until we can resolve just what's the best way to dispose of the nuclear waste that would come from processing them. We freely admit that there are nuclear weapons aboard some of our ships and we freely admit that there are nuclear weapons that we have positioned in Europe, but we don't intend to give information to the Soviets on where we do or do not store or carry nuclear weapons. So if a country insists on a declaration of whether or not there are nuclear weapons on board a vessel, the United States will normally refuse to put a ship into that port.

HONOLULU: Admiral, what are some of the lessons that we learned from observing the Falklands war?

LONG: I don't think we fully appreciate all the lessons learned from the Falklands, but one thing that comes through is that in today's combat environment, where you are dealing with enemy air, you need the ability to detect that enemy air at long distances and to intercept it at long distances. The British did not have this capacity. They did not have anything like our Air Force AWACS aircraft or the Navy's E-2C Skyhawks. So clearly, that lesson has been re-emphasized. Another thing is ship survivability, which depends on several different things. It depends on identifying if there's a threat far out and trying to destroy that threat before it gets in. It also very much involves the construction of the ships—the ability of those ships to sustain damage. One of the most significant things that comes through is that ships that are built cheaply, with, say, lots of aluminum, and with little emphasis on damage control equipment, are going to be very, very vulnerable. It also showed that the mere presence of modern nuclear submarines was enough to basically keep the Argentine fleet in port. There are a whole variety of other things we learned as well.

HONOLULU: I know this is a very provocative question to ask a Navy man, but did the Falklands war, with its heavy naval casualties, indicate that warships may be becoming

obsolete?

LONG: I think we'll have ships around for a long time, because there's really no alternate way of moving large quantities of materiel cheaply. In the Vietnam War, for example, over 95 percent of all the materiel going there went by water. So ships will be vulnerable, but they can be protected with several different layers of defense. Aircraft with long-range missiles can protect them from threats from far away. Closer in, they can be protected by long-range missiles from the ships. And closer on in, the so-called gatling guns which just basically throw up great screens of steel can be used. Then, finally you have the basic toughness and battle resistance of the ships themselves. Defense of ships against submarines also starts a long way out—perhaps 150-200 miles away from the ships, where you'll have nuclear submarines in direct support of the ships; and then there will be helicopters and P-3 ASW [Anti-Submarine Warfare] aircraft; and the very effective ASW equipment of surface ships, until again you come to the ability of the ship to sustain damage.

HONOLULU: Admiral, what are the Russians up to in the Pacific?

LONG: The real short answer is they're up to no good. The Russians' activity in the Pacific is part of their overall global objectives. In the Pacific, as recently as 10 years ago, the Soviet presence was relatively benign. But the economic importance of Asian and Pacific trade has increased enormously for the United States until this area of the world is now our No. 1 trading partner. Our trade with this part of the world is growing faster than that with any other area, including Europe. It is also the source of many of our strategic minerals—not just oil but also things like cobalt and chromium that are essential for aircraft and automobile construction. Another thing that has occurred during the last decade is that the Soviets have very definitely set out to establish the ability to conduct a second-front military operation here. They have increased their presence so significantly that today about one-third of all Soviet forces are here in the East—that's one-third of their ground forces, air forces, naval forces and ballistic missiles, like the SS-20s.

In addition to the dramatic increases in and modernization of their forces here they have made improvements in the Trans-Siberian railway; built up ammunition, fuel and other logistics stores in the area and established a new command headquarters, comparable to CINCPAC, in the eastern part of Siberia. So they now have a command structure in the East that is comparable to the one that controls the Warsaw Pact forces. The Soviets have also made significant gains in facilities and bases in this part of the world, most notably at Cam Ranh Bay in Vietnam.

HONOLULU: There are three basic ways the Soviets could be troublesome to us: nuclear war, conventional war and fomenting or exploiting regional conflicts. In this nuclear era, surely we're not likely to face them in a conventional war, are we? If not, isn't the major threat they pose for us in the area of these regional flashpoints?

LONG: I think the most likely activity that the Soviets will undertake is a continuation of what we have been seeing for the past several years, and that is the use of proxies or surrogates in various areas around the world where they perceive a weakness on the part of the free world. Examples of these would be places like El Salvador, Angola, Ethiopia, South Yemen and Cambodia. Those are indirect indications of Soviet power pursuing Soviet objectives on a global basis. I predict we will continue to see this kind of regional confrontation. These Soviet adventures would not be possible were they not able to back up their proxies with additional power. When anyone talks about the balance of power between East and West, they must realize that it is a combination of nuclear and conventional power, along with economic and political power.

HONOLULU: There are those who would say that both the US and the USSR are hell-bent on bankrupting their countries in order to build and maintain enormous military machines, even though neither side will use large numbers of men or large quantities of planes, ships, subs, missiles and so forth in these regional conflicts and even though nuclear war is unthinkable, unless one side wishes to destroy the world. Why, then, does this bilateral military spending frenzy continue?

LONG: I think it's important that we go back and ask ourselves if the Soviets have a plan that they've been following for the last 50 to 75 years, the object of which is to destroy our way of government and replace it with their own. It is clear to me from the actions and rhetoric of the Soviets that they do. This being the case, what does the free world need to do to stop that kind of aggression? The contest between the Soviet Union and the United States is not just military: It is also political and economic. The Soviets are not particularly strong economically, and in the political area they have many bankrupt ideas, but they have continued this tremendous military buildup at the expense of the standard of living and the freedom of their own people. They are looking for signs of weakness on our side, and they are very patient. They'll move either directly—as in the case of Afghanistan and Poland—or indirectly—as in countries like Angola and South Yemen where they set up puppet governments.

HONOLULU: Let's move a bit closer to home: to Kahoolawe. The Protect Kahoolawe Ohana wants archaeological sites there protected, but the Navy feels it needs the island as a bombing target. Is there any way both sides can win? Is there any alternative bombing site?

LONG: There are very few places in the world today that the United States has access to where we can actually train: go in and drop bombs, shoot guns and have amphibious landings. Kahoolawe is one, and there aren't any others in the central Pacific. I think right now the agreement between the Navy and the people who are interested in preserving that place as a historical site is a good agreement. There are a lot of

things that the Navy is doing. They spend thousands of hours in monitoring the way the firings are being done. There are certain areas that have now been restricted. There is tree planting that is going on.

HONOLULU: There was some talk around the time of the RIMPAC exercises of lowering the percentage of live ammunition to 10 percent, even though the agreement permitted 25 percent, so as to minimize the damage done to the island by having so many forces from our country and others bombing and strafing it.

LONG: Well, I think we've gotten it down just about to the lowest permissible level now. I would have concern if we tried to place further restrictions on the live firing over there.

HONOLULU: On a related topic, relations between natives of Hawaii and military personnel have often been troubled. What has been done to improve relations, and how would you describe the current state of relations?

LONG: When I arrived at CINCPAC about three years ago, there were some serious problems. I don't want to imply that I was the person responsible for changing things, because efforts were carried on by a lot of people, but since that time I have seen a steadily improved relationship grow between the military and the civilian population. Over at Kaneohe, on the Waianae beaches, around the Navy facilities and up at Schofield Barracks the military and civilian people in charge have taken significant steps to improve those relationships. There's a tremendous amount of activity that goes on, and I strongly support it.

HONOLULU: What were the particular goals you set out to achieve when you came to CINCPAC and how has it gone in your first three years?

LONG: Before I came to this job, I was convinced that we needed a greater awareness in Washington of the importance of the Pacific. So one of my primary objectives was to make sure people knew why we had to put more of our resources here. When I first came here, we seriously lacked such things as ammunition stocks, spare parts and fuel storage. In some areas we literally only had a few days' supply of aviation fuel. We also needed more flying hours, steaming hours and so on. In addition to that, it was very apparent to me that we needed a greater contribution from our allies to our cooperative security effort. Since that time I think there is additional awareness. Not long ago an announcement was made that we were going to put additional F-16 modern aircraft in Misawa, Japan, which is at the northern tip of the main island. We've also continued to modernize our forces. On the question of readiness, we have made significant progress on building up our supplies of ammunition, stores, parts and fuel. We have improved the amount of money available for exercises, steaming hours and flying hours. And we've also made great progress, although not as much as I'd like, on getting our allies to put more into the pot. If they do that, then we will have the opportunity to use our forces, which are spread very thin, with optimum effectiveness.

HONOLULU: Is there anything I haven't asked that you'd like HONOLULU's readers to know?

LONG: Well, I think it's important that the people of Honolulu understand how much we value our relationship with them. This is our home. This is where our children go to school. And we want to be an effective, contributing part of this community.

INTERVIEW/Alan Waldman

Jim Albertini

Hawaii's best-known nuclear weapons foe discusses nuclear dumping near Oahu, nuclear accidents on Oahu and the race for nuclear first-strike capacity

James Albertini has never been married. The ruggedly handsome 36-year-old taro farmer and anti-nuclear activist admits that his frequent trips to jail probably make him less than the ideal matrimonial prospect. Outspoken, controversial, courageous and unquestionably sincere, Albertini has spent 15 years attempting to prod the public into awareness with his many acts of civil disobedience—first against the Vietnam War and later in opposition to the nuclear arms race.

As head of the Oahu-based peace group "catholic Action" and its Peace Education Project, Albertini has sought to make the public aware of the dangers implicit in nuclear weapons growth, often revealing shocking details of nuclear accidents and activities that Pentagon public relations people would rather keep quiet. He lectures extensively, usually presenting an eye-opening slide show called "Nuclear Hawaii." He is also co-author of the revealing book, The Dark Side of Paradise: Hawaii in a Nuclear World.

Albertini has been threatened, physically attacked, arrested and jailed for his headline-making acts of civil disobedience, usually as leader of a small band of nuclear weapons foes. Yet a recent and profound change in the world's opinion of the necessity of the nuclear arms race has taken him somewhere he's rarely been before: into the mainstream of public opinion.

This ardent enemy of Armageddon was born in the tiny Pennsylvania coal mining town of Mount Carmel, to a devoutly Roman Catholic, Italian-American family. He was an altar boy and a choirboy during most of the 17 years he attended parochial school. Later he received a degree in theology and economics from Villanova University, where he also captained the golf team and played in several NCAA and Pro-Am tournaments. After graduate studies in economics and mathematics at Bucknell University on a National Science Foundation grant, Albertini taught at St. Francis High School in Clearfield, Pa.

A devout Catholic, Albertini was greatly influenced by a number of religious thinkers who had spoken out against war and oppression. Thomas Merton, Dorothy Day and Pope John XXIII spoke compellingly to him about the need for people to work for peace, while the Reverends Daniel and Philip Berrigan and Martin Luther King Jr. demonstrated how such ethical concerns could be turned into effective action.

During a 1968 demonstration outside the Clearfield draft board office, Jim and two other teachers were attacked and beaten by drunken vets. Albertini moved to Hawaii in 1969, so he could be closer to the heart of the Vietnam War's major staging center. He taught at St. Ann School in Kaneohe but was fired after he and others were arrested for pouring blood on secret electronic warfare files at Hickam Air Force Base. Albertini faced 15 years in prison for destroying government property and conspiring to destroy government property, but the charges were reduced to a misdemeanor so that the government would not have to produce the bloodied files.

Albertini served a 90-day stretch in Halawa Jail. He spent two weeks of his sentence in solitary confinement "for releasing a 10-point constructive program on how to improve prison conditions to the religious editor of the Honolulu Star-Bulletin," *he explains. "The suggestions were all very constructive—things like teaching the prisoners to read and write."*

During the decade since he was first released from prison, Albertini has made his living by writing and occasionally working for an Australian magazine. He has voluntarily earned less than $3,000 a year so he

does not have to pay taxes that support wars and weapons he opposes. During this period he has been coordinating director of catholic Action. (The organization's name originally started with a capital "C" since it was founded by priests, nuns and Catholic lay people. Increasing pressure on the clergy by mainstream Catholics, however, eventually reduced the initial letter to a lower case "c": i.e., catholic—meaning universal or all-encompassing.) Jim Albertini has headed the core group of from six to 30 activists who have carried on virtually constant opposition to the Vietnam War and then the arms race. The organization claims a mailing list of 1,000 persons.

Once when Albertini was demonstrating in downtown Honolulu in support of the United Farm Workers Union's lettuce and grape boycotts, he was clamped in a choke hold by a police officer and then arrested. Later, Albertini says, the police apologized, acknowledging that the protesters had a legal right to be picketing there. In 1977 he and others were arrested for kneeling and praying at the Trident nuclear submarine base under construction at Bangor, Wash. He served a 60-day sentence at Halawa as a result, and once again he raised a ruckus by writing about prison conditions.

On Ash Wednesday, 1981, Albertini and prominent local religious leaders walked into the War Plans room at CINCPAC's Camp Smith headquarters, prayed and drew crosses of ashes on the walls. Later that year, on Armed Forces Day, he was arrested for trespassing at Hickam. The Air Force had held an open house and warmly invited the public, but Jim, mistakenly assuming the welcome extended to him as well, attended with a large anti-nuclear banner. At his subsequent trial, he learned that the Air Force considered the 1972 order barring him from the base to be still in effect. Another trespassing incident followed, when he and others climbed over a West Loch fence with a rope ladder and prayed for peace. Albertini is on one year's unsupervised probation for the West Loch incident and his conviction for the Hickam protest is on appeal.

"... The military spending gap that Reagan touts today is no more real than the bomber gaps and missile gaps of years past..."

Currently at liberty (although that could change at any moment), Jim Albertini lives on the Big Island, where he is the director of "Malu Aina," a taro farm and meeting center just south of Hilo at Kurtistown. He still lectures frequently and will soon be making a European speaking tour, as the guest of a French Catholic organization. He was interviewed in one of the simple wooden farm buildings he and his colleagues have constructed by the green taro fields of "Malu Aina."

HONOLULU: Jim, the U.S. government has steadfastly refused to confirm or deny the presence of nuclear weapons in Hawaii. Do you feel you are endangering national security by seeking to prove their existence here?
ALBERTINI: Absolutely not. The purpose of that government policy is to discourage public discussion and stifle inquiry. It is certainly not intended to keep the Russians from knowing where U.S. nuclear weapons are stored. Their satellite cameras and intelligence organizations tell them all they need to know about where our nuclear weapons are stored. The policy of secrecy is designed to keep people in the dark, but what *we* are doing is asserting the people's basic right to know about nuclear bombs stored in their back yards.
HONOLULU: You have repeatedly claimed that there are over 3,100 nuclear weapons stored on Oahu. How do you know this?
ALBERTINI: First we did extensive research into all available public documents in libraries, magazines, professional journals, congressional records, military regulations and security directives to find out as much as we could about nuclear weapons. We then began to open our eyes, to pinpoint exactly where these bomb storage sites were on the island. Once you know what a nuclear weapons storage area's characteristics are, it is rather easy to identify. It has double fencing topped with barbed wire, special lights, heavily armed guards and electronic surveillance detection systems which you don't find at non-nuclear facilities. There are even unique signs on nuclear storage fences quoting in red letters the Atomic Energy Internal Security Act of 1950 which says, among other things, "Use of deadly force authorized." These signs are not found around conventional weapon storage areas or elsewhere on military bases. Of course, the special way to find where nuclear weapons are stored is to fly over at night, because these areas are lit up brighter than Waikiki. From the air, West Loch at Pearl Harbor and Waikele stand out on Oahu like sore thumbs. So we were able to pinpoint these places and we knew the nuclear weapons would be transported to where the nuclear-capable forces are—Pearl Harbor, Hickam, Barbers Point, Kaneohe and Schofield Barracks. Therefore we simply stood on public land and watched a helipad at Waikele, very close to the nuclear storage bunkers, until we observed the weapons being loaded into the backs of helicopters for transit. Then we photographed them. We also read government manuals on the transportation of the 60 types of nuclear weapons in the U.S. arsenal so that we were able to identify each type of container we saw.
HONOLULU: Is there any chance that you are wrong and that there are no nukes on Oahu?
ALBERTINI: Absolutely none. My own research would indicate that Oahu probably has the greatest concentration of nuclear weapons on the face of this earth. Conservatively, we estimate that there are 3,100 nuclear weapons on Oahu.
HONOLULU: That's an *estimate* of what's here. How many nuclear weapons do you know are here? How

many do you have direct proof of?

ALBERTINI: Well, we have no direct proof of numbers, but I have observed their transport on a large number of occasions.

HONOLULU: Have you seen 10 missiles? Fifty? How many have you physically observed?

ALBERTINI: Well, in one afternoon I observed 18 nuclear ASROCs—anti-submarine rockets that are carried on surface ships—being loaded onto helicopters for transport from Waikele to West Loch.

HONOLULU: Are they all equipped with nuclear warheads?

ALBERTINI: They are conventional and nuclear.

HONOLULU: So you don't know for sure that you saw nuclear-equipped ASROCs.

ALBERTINI: We do know we saw nuclear-equipped ASROCs, because they were carried in the unique containers that are identified in the manual on the transport of nuclear weapons. Moreover, the security around nuclear weapons is far different.

HONOLULU: How many nuclear weapons would you estimate that you have seen in all?

ALBERTINI: Hundreds.

HONOLULU: Have you ever spoken to anyone in the military who has confirmed the presence of nuclear weapons here?

ALBERTINI: Yes. We have received information from several high-ranking military people. The figure "over 3,000" has come from them. I have also talked to people who handle nuclear weapons—of course, that is touchy information since they could be prosecuted for having divulged it. I have had people in the military tell me that there have been nuclear weapons accidents at Waikele and possibly elsewhere on Oahu. In his interview with you in the December 1982 issue of HONOLULU, the commander in chief Pacific, Admiral Robert Long, downplayed the issue of accidents. He even contradicted official military information on the danger of nuclear weapons.

HONOLULU: Admiral Long told me that a plane could crash into nuclear weapons stored near a large city and there would be no explosions resulting, no radiation leakage and that this "would not be the cause of a nuclear incident per se."

ALBERTINI: That's an interesting phrase. We have established beyond any doubt in our minds that at this point Hawaii's largest nuclear weapons stockpile is at West Loch, within a mile of the glide path to Honolulu International Airport. That airport has a red star rating anyway for its dangerous mix of traffic. If a plane crashed into West Loch's bunkers, we estimate that the weapons would be broken open. Once plutonium, the essential ingredient in these weapons, is exposed to air, it burns, emitting an aerosol which is dispersed, depending on the wind, in a cigar-shaped cloud that can be carried a considerable distance. It is inconceivable that a plane crashing at West Loch would not result in large-scale radioactive contamination of these islands, probably making them uninhabitable for generations. Plutonium is one of the most toxic substances known, with a half-life of over 24,000 years. Moreover, an accidental nuclear detonation is also possible.

HONOLULU: Have there been a lot of nuclear accidents over the past couple of decades?

ALBERTINI: You'd be surprised how many. Let me give you some actual citations on accidents which really haven't been made public in any publication before; so HONOLULU can be the first to report them. There is a civil suit entitled *Lind vs. U.S. Navy* that was initiated here in Hawaii to try and break open more data on nuclear weapons accidents. And in an interrogatory filed in that suit, top Navy officials in Washington confirmed that from 1965 to 1977 there were 379 naval nuclear weapons accidents and incidents. Now that's just the Navy. Previously the Pentagon had only acknowledged 33 over a 20-year period. Some sketchy information was also given in the Lind suit about four of these accidents. On Sept. 25, 1959, an ASW P5-M ditched in the Puget Sound with a nuclear weapon on board; the weapon was lost. On Dec. 5, 1968, an A-4 Naval aircraft with a nuclear weapon fell off the elevator of an aircraft carrier into the Pacific Ocean; the pilot, the aircraft and the nuke were lost. Jan. 20, 1966, a Terrier nuclear missile was damaged on a ship in Mayport, Fla. In 1963 the nuclear submarine *Thresher* was lost at sea and on May 27, 1968, the nuclear submarine *Scorpion* was lost at sea.

HONOLULU: What is the danger from a nuclear sub's being lost at sea?

ALBERTINI: Nuclear submarine pipefitters talk about a phenomenon called "the *Thresher* syndrome," in which the workers fear that they may be contributing to some very dangerous situations on board submarines. When a submarine has to be repaired, there are a lot of pipes that have radioactivity flowing around in them, and when valves have to be replaced, they freeze the pipes on both sides of the valve. Since they want to be sure to protect themselves from dangerous exposure to radioactivity, they tend to freeze these pipes far below the minimum necessary safety level. Therefore these pipes tend to become brittle, and under the pressure submarines undergo at great depths these pipes can burst. The theory commonly expressed is that the *Thresher* was involved in such an accident: that pipes burst, causing shorts, and the sub simply descended to crush depth, where it was blown into a million pieces. And that means that the nuclear reactor and nuclear weapons on board an attack sub like *Thresher* or *Scorpion* would get into the ocean and into the food chain and into you and me.

Many U.S. nuclear weapons have been lost at sea. It happened at Thule, Greenland, in 1966. It also happened when a B-52 crashed into a tanker during mid-air refueling over Spain and four nuclear weapons were released. Two of them went into the ocean. Frequently, when I speak in public, people come forward and confirm parts of my information, based on their own knowledge or experience. On a couple of occasions, people have come forward and told

of specific nuclear accidents.

HONOLULU: Any in Hawaii?

ALBERTINI: Yes. Now I can't tell you too many details about this case lest I compromise someone's safety, but I'll tell you that within the last eight years a worker at the Waikele nuclear base in Central Oahu, one mile upwind of Waipahu under trade wind conditions, told me that there was an accident there at the nuclear weapons maintenance area involving release of radioactivity. So there could already be radioactive contamination around here. The Stockholm International Peace Research Institute cites 125 U.S. nuclear weapons accidents in a 20-year period, and I did a little mathematics and estimated that considering the number of nuclear weapons we have here in Hawaii, it is likely that at least 12 nuclear weapons accidents have already occurred here. If not, statistically we are overdue and it is certainly just a matter of time.

HONOLULU: You have gone to jail for protesting the Trident nuclear submarine. Why? How dangerous is Trident?

ALBERTINI: Trident, frankly, is the most destructive weapon system built in the history of the world. It must not be allowed to become fully operational. One is already deployed. I am confident that it will be unwelcome in any port it visits.

HONOLULU: Admiral Long said that if a Trident were to run aground or experience a fire, collision or explosion, there would be no chance of a nuclear incident and no release of radiation. Do you believe him?

ALBERTINI: It is a basic fact of life that any radioactivity released into the marine environment accumulates at each level of the food chain and can cause serious public health hazards. The Trident is no more invulnerable than the *Titanic* was. Hawaii has had nuclear submarines operating out of Pearl Harbor since 1964 and the Navy has now confirmed that between 1964 and 1973 nearly 5 million gallons of radioactive nuclear waste were discharged directly into Pearl Harbor. In addition, 2,189 drums of solid nuclear waste from the repair work on these subs have been dumped to the ocean floor 55 miles from Oahu. The Navy says there's been no significant or discernible effect on the quality of the environment, but that seems highly speculative. If the damage has not yet been done, how long will it be before our fish are seriously irradiated? Also, we should realize that the $1.8 billion which each Trident costs is enough to build a half-million modest homes for people living in substandard housing.

HONOLULU: Admiral Long downplays Honolulu's importance as a strategic nuclear target for the Russians. I have a feeling you disagree with him.

ALBERTINI: That's a good guess. His statement contradicts information available in military documents. It ignores the Defense Civil Preparedness Agency report and a study by the Rand Corporation, which is a Pentagon think tank. Some of the Soviet's major targets are here: Waikele and West Loch nuclear storage areas; CINCPAC command and control center; Pearl Harbor submarine base and shipyard; Barbers Point, the headquarters of anti-submarine warfare in the Pacific; the Pacific Air Force headquarters at Hickam; Schofield Barracks, and I can go on and on. Who is he kidding? All of these are prime targets.

HONOLULU: I'd imagine that as the U.S. shifts from a policy of deterrence to one of first strike, military targets would become more important than the large urban centers, and that since we are so close to many of these prime targets, we would be destroyed first in any nuclear confrontation.

ALBERTINI: Exactly. I'm glad you raised that point. You see, deterrence is based on the premise that neither side dares be the first to fire, because of assured retaliation and destruction. But a stalemate is never an acceptable option to the military mind, which is oriented to winning wars. Well, some of our recent developments in technology are leading us to the point where we will soon have the ability to destroy the other side before they can fire back. And first strike is necessarily based on the premise that you dare not be the last to fire your weapons, since you may not have the opportunity. First strike involves the launching of an attack so devastating that the Soviet Union either is unable to retaliate or can retaliate only with what the Pentagon considers an acceptable level of damage, which could be 10, 20 or 30 million Americans killed.

HONOLULU: How is the race for a first-strike capability progressing?

ALBERTINI: According to congressional testimony of U.S. military officials, the United States has a five- to seven-year technological lead over the Russians in most of the essential areas for the first strike: in accuracy, in anti-submarine warfare and in miniaturization of weapons components.

HONOLULU: President Reagan says we're lagging behind the Soviets in many essential military areas and that we have to spend more to catch up.

ALBERTINI: The military spending gap that Reagan touts today is no more real than the bomber gaps and missile gaps of years past.

HONOLULU: You see it as a well-intentioned fiction cooked up by the military to—

ALBERTINI: I think that one should be able to see very clearly that the military-industrial complex which Eisenhower warned us about is competing for tremendous new weapons systems. The Navy wants to get full production on all its Trident submarines. The Air Force wants to get the MX. The Army is champing at the bit for the neutron bomb, the Pershing and the Cruise missiles. So what the military has to do is create a climate where the American people are so worried about our security that we'll reach into our pockets and pay for all these new weapons systems—some $1.7 trillion over the next five years.

HONOLULU: To be paid for either by reduced social services or by staggering budget deficits.

ALBERTINI: That's correct. Of course the whole notion of Russian or American military superiority is

meaningless when each side has a destructive power equivalent to literally billions of tons of TNT. Since both sides are absurdly and suicidally trying to up the ante and go for a first-strike capability, this underlies the grave importance of establishing a nuclear freeze now. A freeze would stop each side's new systems from becoming operational.

HONOLULU: Why is there a Nuclear Free Pacific movement?

ALBERTINI: There have been close to 200 nuclear weapons tested in the Pacific Ocean by the U.S., France and Great Britain. Some islands have been literally vaporized. Marine and soil life have been poisoned and a legacy of cancer has possibly been left for future generations. Also, since each new weapon system built requires development of more support bases and apparatus for communications, navigation, command and control, what we'll see, if the arms race is not stopped, is that more and more of the Pacific will become militarized like Hawaii is today. There are now over 100 military installations in this state, occupying over 25 percent of Oahu's total land.

HONOLULU: What kind of progress has the Nuclear Free Pacific movement been making?

ALBERTINI: The county of Hawaii has declared itself nuclear free by county ordinance. The Nuclear Free Hawaii movement has grown and broadened over the past nine years and has gained support with churches, labor unions, health professionals and many other groups. We're seeing a number of newly independent Pacific nations like Vanuatu (formerly the New Hebrides), Palau (which has a nuclear-free constitution) and Fiji refusing to allow nuclear-powered or nuclear-armed U.S. ships into their ports. And contrary to what Admiral Long told you, we're seeing increasing opposition to U.S. nuclear vessels in the Pacific.

HONOLULU: Do you oppose all nuclear power, including its use for the generation of electricity?

ALBERTINI: Nuclear power plants are very dangerous and should all be shut down. The entire nuclear fuel cycle, from mining and milling of uranium through the enrichment, fuel fabrication and operation of the plants, to the eventual waste disposal is a cancer epidemic in the making.

HONOLULU: The freeze movement is enormous in Europe and has a lot of support on the Mainland, where many states and communities have passed pro-freeze referenda. Why isn't the anti-nuclear movement larger in Hawaii?

ALBERTINI: Because Hawaii is one of the most militarized places in the world. There are 120,000 military personnel and dependents here, 20,000 civilian employees of the military and a large contingent of military retirees and veterans. That's an enormous bloc. So it's hard to organize here in the "Pentagon of the Pacific." Even so, I think things are changing rapidly here.

HONOLULU: On another cheerful topic, what danger does electromagnetic radiation pose to residents of Wahiawa and the Waianae coast?

ALBERTINI: That's a very good question and one that is going to require much more research. The military acknowledges in a major report that residents of Nanakuli and parts of Maili are living in an electromagnetic radiation hazard zone. The long-term health effects of such exposure remain to be determined. I believe the Waianae Comprehensive Health Clinic is doing a survey of health problems in the area to see if there are possible links to that electromagnetic radiation. I'm not sure if anything is being done in Central Oahu or on the Windward side near the Omega Navigation Station, which also gives off electromagnetic radiation. The military does, however, recognize the danger of electromagnetic radiation to ordnance. Apparently, pulses can inadvertently set off weapons.

HONOLULU: You have claimed that over the past six years there has been a transfer of nuclear weapons from Waikele to West Loch. Why do you think that has been happening?

ALBERTINI: Waikele is in the process of a phaseout. When it was established as a bomb storage site, it was rural. Now it's being surrounded by homes, some of which are literally being built atop the tunnels where bombs are stored. There is also extensive transport of nuclear weapons all the time to various military sites on the island because of the need to check weapons and replace parts.

HONOLULU: Do the terms of your probation forbid further civil disobedience?

ALBERTINI: If I am convicted of a crime this year I could be sentenced to jail for the recent action at West Loch as well as for any new conviction.

HONOLULU: Does that encourage you to stay out of trouble in 1983?

ALBERTINI: I'm sure it's meant as a deterrent, but it won't interfere with our doing what we feel we must do in conscience.

HONOLULU: It has been charged in print that the anti-nuclear movement is infiltrated by communists. How do you respond?

ALBERTINI: I recently read an article in *Reader's Digest* declaring that the movement is directed by the KGB. I find this preposterous. I think it's a desperate attempt by the right-wing military establishment to discredit the rapidly growing, broad-based movement. I know most of the leaders of the anti-nuclear movement and none of them is a communist.

HONOLULU: What is your view of Judge Samuel King, who once called you a "psychopath" but recently gave you a very lenient sentence?

ALBERTINI: Judge King and I have a long association. This was my third time before him in 10 years. It's interesting that nine months ago he called me a psychopath and yet at the most recent trial he called me his "old friend" in the courtroom and expressed the hope that we would be successful in our goals. I attribute the change to several factors. First, the growing peace movement that has developed locally, nationally and internationally. Also a number of religious leaders and prominent citizens spoke to Judge King on their own initiative about his having called me a psychopath. I think that he also

has had a chance to think out the issues more carefully. He has grandchildren. And when any responsible person reads about U.S. nuclear war plans stated to fight "limited nuclear wars," he or she begins to think a little more deeply.

HONOLULU: Have you ever spoken to Admiral Long?

ALBERTINI: No, but as you may know, one of his CINCPAC predecessors, Admiral Noel Gayler, who directed the world's heaviest bombing ever against Vietnam in 1972, had a change of heart and is now a very outspoken critic of the arms race.

HONOLULU: What has happened when you have met with high-ranking military people here?

ALBERTINI: I've been on panels with many of them and I've found that for the most part they are very human on a personal level. The commander of a Polaris submarine who was at a forum with me rode his bicycle there because he said he was a strong believer in ecology. In the discussion, however, he admitted that if ordered to, he would unleash weapons equivalent to 600 Hiroshima bombs with no qualms at all. So what you see, frequently, is good people caught up in institutional roles, doing jobs that have death at the end of them, much as the people in Nazi Germany did. You know, a disturbing story is that Adolf Eichmann, Hitler's right-hand man in the extermination of 6 million Jews, was examined by psychiatrists and found to be perfectly sane. He was very loyal and obedient and he did his job of mass murder very diligently and without asking questions.

HONOLULU: Are you still an activist or are you now primarily a taro farmer? Can your return to the land be seen as a retreat from the struggle, or is it, if you'll pardon the pun, a symbolic return to "roots"?

ALBERTINI: It is not a withdrawal from the struggle. "Malu Aina" is a grassroots people's think tank. We are studying and practicing non-violence while experimenting in living simply and sharing the fruits of the land with people in need. We also formulate strategy here so that we can go out and take effective action for justice and peace.

HONOLULU: Jim, you've been sticking flowers in gun barrels, one way or another, for over 15 years, encountering abuse and even the deprivation of your liberty. What keeps you going?

ALBERTINI: The bottom line is a deep spiritual base. I've seen many people come and go in these efforts and they seem to be the spiritually rootless ones. I have faith that nuclear war can be averted and that global nuclear disarmament can be achieved. Martin Luther King said that the choice is not between non-violence and violence but between non-violence and extermination. My deepest wish is that the world's people will join together and choose non-violence and work toward a future that is full of hope.

Activity

On a separate sheet of paper, make a chart like this, and fill in the blanks.

	Admiral Long	Jim Albertini
1. What is the background of each? Whom does he represent?		
2. What is each person's point of view regarding nuclear weapons? What does each think is important?		

3. Which view do you support? Explain.

4. Can you think of an incident when people have had different ideas on what to do about something? Think of a real incident or make one up. You may change the names to protect the innocent. Describe the situation according to the outline above: each person's background; each person's view of what is important.

The Economy

The Modern Economic History of Hawai'i

This outline can be used as an introduction to and/or a review of events and trends in Hawai'i's history. It provides background to an understanding of contemporary events and issues in our state and shows changes that have taken place over time. It can be used to spark discussion on pattern and relationships in events, possible causes of certain changes, why a certain event took place at a particular time, and what changes might occur in the future. Numerous activities are suggested for use with the outline.

1778-1819

1785 Fur traders from North America are the first traders to begin spending the winter in Hawai'i, stimulating barter and spreading the word about Hawai'i to other traders.

1790 SANDALWOOD TRADE: Foreigners begin to take an interest in Hawaiian sandalwood, and small amounts are exported to China until 1811, when a more active exploitation of the resource is begun by three Americans.

1793 British Captain George Vancouver introduces cattle, sheep, and goats, some of the many imports to affect Hawai'i's future economic history.

1800 to 1819 Kamehameha I purchases foreign vessels with sandalwood. He creates a small fleet under the Hawaiian flag and uses it for interisland trading and trade with China.

1802 SUGAR: The first sugar crop in Hawai'i is produced on Kaua'i by an early Chinese immigrant who came as a result of the sandalwood trade.

1804 As Honolulu becomes increasingly important as a trading center, Kamehameha I selects Waikīkī as one of his residences, further stimulating Honolulu's growth.

1811 SANDALWOOD TRADE: An active trade in sandalwood is begun. Chiefs use the labor of commoners to gather sandalwood in the hills. Commoners suffer greatly as their crops are neglected.

1813 PINEAPPLE: Don Francisco de Paula Marin plants the first pineapple in Hawai'i.

1819 SANDALWOOD TRADE: Chiefs increase their involvement in the sandalwood trade and incur significant debts to foreign traders.

1820-1839

1820 WHALING: A rich whale fishery is discovered off Japan, making Hawai'i an important location for provisions and rest among Pacific whalers.

1825 SUGAR: An Englishman, John Wilkinson, sets up the first experimental sugar plantation in Mānoa Valley.

1825 to 1840 WHALING: An average of 100 whaling ships per year stop in Lahaina and Honolulu.

1827 TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION: The first shipyard is set up in Honolulu Harbor.

1828 OTHER CROPS: Missionaries begin to grow coffee in Kona, foreshadowing the later business interests of their descendants, as well as the importance of a new crop.

1829 SANDALWOOD TRADE: Boki, an important Hawaiian chief and governor of O'ahu, sets out on a search for sandalwood throughout the Pacific but is never heard from again.

1829 SANDALWOOD TRADE: The United States sends a warship to Hawai'i to investigate complaints of sandalwood debts owed by the chiefs to American traders.

1830 SANDALWOOD TRADE: The sandalwood trade collapses after most sandalwood in Hawai'i has been depleted.

1830s Ambitious foreigners obtain from Kamehameha III (Kauikeaouli) the right to shoot the wild cattle which had greatly multiplied in the mountains since being introduced by Vancouver. The meat is salted and sold to ship owners. One Massachusetts man, John Parker, begins one of the world's largest cattle ranches, Parker Ranch, on the Big Island.

1831 WHALING: An island-based fleet of whaling ships is put together. By 1854 there will be six ships. By 1858 there will be 19.

1835 SUGAR: Kamehameha III signs the first lease agreement with Ladd & Co., a sugar "factor"--an agent acting on behalf of a grower--establishing the first permanent sugar plantation in Hawai'i. In 1837 this Kōloa, Kaua'i, plantation produces its first crop.

1835 to 1840 An average of 5,000 beef hides are exported each year.

1836 SUGAR: 8,000 pounds of sugar are exported.

1836 A British-Hawaiian treaty recognizes the property rights of both the Hawaiian king and English subjects. English subjects are permitted to reside in Hawai'i so long as they conform to the laws of the islands. They may build houses and warehouses with the consent of the king. The treaty states that the king owns the land on which the houses are built but that the king has no authority to destroy those houses or damage British property.

1840-1859

1840 OTHER CROPS: The cultivation of the Irish potato begins on Maui; it soon becomes an important export crop to feed new settlements on America's west

coast. Sailors prefer this potato to the sweet potato found on O'ahu. This preference helps to make the port of Lahaina an important alternative to Honolulu for visiting ships.

1840 Valparaiso, a South American port, becomes one of the main sources of trade with Hawai'i.

1841 LABORERS: The first recorded work stoppage on a Hawai'i plantation occurs at Ladd & Co.'s Kōloa plantation. Workers fail to gain higher wages.

1841 A standardized lease system is imposed on all foreigners holding land in Hawai'i. Another law prohibits the future sale of lands without the consent of the king. Pressure grows for a western system of land ownership.

1842 SANDALWOOD TRADE: Kamehameha III appoints a treasury board to pay off the sandalwood debts.

1842 OTHER CROPS: The first coffee plantation is started at Hanalei, Kaua'i.

1843 SANDALWOOD TRADE: Hawai'i's sandalwood debts are finally paid off.

1845 OTHER CROPS: The first 248 pounds of coffee is exported. By 1850 the export will reach 208,428 pounds.

1845 Theo. H. Davies & Co. is started and eventually becomes a member of the Big Five.

1846 TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION: A Hawaiian law limits interisland steamers to those under the Hawaiian flag, as the Kingdom attempts to control some aspects of commerce in the islands.

1846 TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION: A postal system is established in Hawai'i, enhancing communications and trade.

1848 The Great Māhele begins with the division of all lands between the king and the chiefs; it later includes *kuleana* grants to commoners. Foreign investors quickly buy up thousands of acres of land.

1849 H. Hackfeld & Company is started and eventually becomes American Factors and a member of the Big Five.

1850 Honolulu is declared to be a city, with a population of approximately 14,000, indicating the importance of the role of commerce in the growth of Hawai'i.

1850 Resident aliens are granted the same rights as natives to own and sell fee simple land.

1850 Liberty House is started by Hackfeld & Co.

1850 LABORERS: The Masters and Servants Act is passed, outlining the legal relationship between plantation owners and imported contract labor.

1850 James Campbell arrives in Maui. He later amasses one of the largest estates in the islands.

1850 SUGAR: 750,000 pounds of sugar are exported.

1850 TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION: Honolulu Harbor is improved with dredging and filling.

1850 TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION: Regular mail service with the United States is begun.

1850s WHALING: During a good season, in the spring and in the fall, at least 12,000 seamen stop in Honolulu for rest and recreation. The local economy gains as much as the annual revenue of the Hawaiian government. Most of this money is used to pay women for their favors.

1851 TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION: Sixty-seven interisland vessels are operating in Hawai'i, all registered under the Hawaiian flag. This shows the development of commerce among the islands.

1851 TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION: Hawaiian postage stamps are first sold.

1851 OTHER CROPS: Exports of *pulu*, the silky hair from ferns used to stuff pillows and mattresses, reach 2,500 pounds.

1852 LABORERS: Approximately 300 Chinese laborers are brought in to work on the plantations, representing the first of many groups to work Hawai'i's plantations.

1853 TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION: The steamer *Akamai* begins regular cargo service between San Francisco and Honolulu.

1854 to 1872 OTHER CROPS: Hawai'i's main agricultural exports are sugar, rice, coffee, and *pulu*.

1855 In the first year of Kamehameha IV's reign, William Lee is commissioned to negotiate a reciprocity treaty with the administration of U.S. President Franklin Pierce. A draft is approved by the Hawaiian Kingdom, but it lingers for two years in the U.S. Senate and dies for lack of interest in 1857. A second attempt in the late 1860s also fails to pass the Senate. Success finally comes following Kalākaua's trip in 1874.

1855 to 1857 WHALING: An average of 400 whaling ships stop in Hawai'i each year.

1856 SUGAR: The first large-scale irrigation ditch is constructed for the Līhu'e plantation, an innovation which will help expand sugar.

1857 SUGAR: The tariff on Hawaiian sugar imported into the United States is lowered from 30 percent to 24 percent, greatly helping the Hawaiian sugar growers.

1857 A treaty with France limits the duty Hawai'i can charge on imported French goods.

1860-1879

1860 OTHER CROPS: A new strain of rice is imported from South Carolina and is successfully planted. This helps to make rice an important export crop for Hawai'i.

1860 TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION: The first interisland steamer service is started.

1860 to 1870 SUGAR: There are now twelve sugar plantations in Hawai'i: three on Kaua'i, four on Maui, five on Hawai'i, but none on O'ahu.

1860 to 1870 SUGAR: The first use of fertilizer to improve sugar production is tried at the Līhu'e plantation.

1861 to 1865 SUGAR: The American Civil War deprives the marketplace of southern sugar, and prices climb for Hawaiian sugar. Profits are good even after paying heavy tariffs to import sugar into the United States. By 1866 the number of plantations grows to 32, up from only 12 in 1860. The 1866 total for sugar exported reaches 17,750,000 pounds, up from 750,000 pounds in 1860.

1863 TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION: Steamer transportation begins between Honolulu and San Francisco and between Honolulu and Australia.

1863 SUGAR: Claus Spreckels opens the Bay Sugar Refinery in San Francisco using Hawaiian sugar.

1863 to 1872 LABORERS: Approximately 2,000 immigrant workers are brought to Hawai'i of whom 85 percent are Chinese and 10 percent are Pacific Islanders.

1865 LABORERS: The Bureau of Immigration is formed to deal with the needs of growing plantations for immigrant labor.

1866 to 1867 SUGAR: There is a surplus of sugar, causing prices to drop and producing an economic depression in Hawai'i.

1867 TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION: The U.S. Congress provides $75,000 a year for steamship mail service from the U.S. to Hawai'i.

1868 LABORERS: The first 168 Japanese laborers are brought to Hawai'i to work on plantations.

1870 WHALING: Whaling has declined dramatically from the 1850s when 400 whaling vessels visited each year. From 1870 to 1872 only 71 vessels a year arrive.

1870 Alexander & Baldwin is founded, eventually becoming a member of the Big Five.

1871 to 1872 TOURISM: The first hotel, the Hawaiian Hotel, is built at the corner of Hotel and Richards Streets in Honolulu. It later becomes the Royal Hawaiian Hotel.

1871 to 1872 SUGAR: Another depression hits the sugar industry, creating pressure for a reciprocity treaty with the United States to ensure more favorable treatment for sugar imported into the U.S.

1873 SUGAR: King Lunalilo agrees with members of his cabinet to offer Pearl Harbor to the U.S. in order to gain approval of a reciprocity treaty to protect sugar interests. Following opposition by native Hawaiians and some foreigners, Lunalilo withdraws his support for this idea. Following Lunalilo's death, Kalākaua also opposes the transfer of Pearl Harbor, and the 1875 treaty is successfully negotiated without such a provision.

1873 SUGAR: More than one-third of Hawaiian sugar is exported to Australia, New Zealand, and British Columbia.

1875 TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION: The Pacific Mail Steamship Company begins monthly mail service to San Francisco, Honolulu, and the British colonies.

1875 SUGAR: The Reciprocity Treaty with the United States is ratified. This treaty removes U.S. tariffs on imported Hawaiian sugar, thereby stimulating tremendous growth in the sugar industry. In 1875 Hawai'i exports 50 million pounds; by 1890 this grows to 250 million pounds.

1877 to 1890 LABORERS: Over 55,000 Chinese laborers are brought to Hawai'i, approximately 8,000 from California.

1878 SUGAR: The Hāmākua irrigation ditch on Maui is completed. Noted for its size (17 miles long), it symbolizes the importance of water for the growth of the sugar industry.

1878 LABORERS: The first Portuguese immigrants arrive in Hawai'i to work on plantations, as sugar planters search for new sources of labor.

1878 Hawaiian Bell Telephone is started.

1878 to 1886 SUGAR: Responding to opportunities resulting from the Reciprocity Treaty, Claus Spreckels rushes to Hawai'i and begins buying land. In 1878 he founds the Spreckelsville Plantation on Maui. In 1880 he buys a partnership with William Irwin, a sugar factor in Honolulu, and by 1882 Irwin and Spreckels control almost the entire Hawaiian sugar crop. The Ocean Steamship Company, also owned by Spreckels, carries Hawaiian sugar to Spreckels's sugar refinery in San Francisco. As a result of Spreckels's close relationship with King Kalākaua, who owed Spreckels money, and Walter Murray Gibson, a prominent and powerful member of the cabinet, Spreckels manages to acquire water rights, land, and various loans

through blackmail and bribery. His influence diminishes in 1886.

1879 The first artesian well is drilled by James Campbell at his 'Ewa plantation, opening up the central O'ahu plain to large-scale agriculture. Campbell had just purchased 40,000 acres in the Pearl Harbor area in 1877.

1880-1899

1880 to 1890 The public debt of Hawai'i's government grows from $388,900 in 1880 to $2,600,000 in 1890.

1881 TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION: Claus Spreckels organizes the Oceanic Steamship Company, which carries sugar to California and supplies to Honolulu monthly.

1884 A Japanese-Hawaiian treaty permits the further importation of Japanese contract laborers to Hawai'i.

1885 PINEAPPLE: New varieties of pineapple are imported to improve the attractiveness of pineapple as a plantation crop.

1886 LABORERS: Hawai'i signs a new treaty with Japan to bring in more Japanese contract laborers for Hawai'i's plantations.

1887 Hawai'i gives the U.S. the right to use Pearl Harbor in order to secure the renewal of the Reciprocity Treaty.

1887 In spite of growing debts, King Kalākaua, back from his world tour, spends $250,000 on his delayed coronation and other expenses.

1890 The U.S. Congress passes the McKinley Tariff Bill, which removes the advantage Hawai'i gained under the Reciprocity Treaty. Hawai'i's economy goes into a depression from 1890 to 1893, generating economic pressures for annexation to the United States.

1891 PINEAPPLE: The first attempts are made to can pineapples.

1891 Hawaiian Electric Company is started.

1893 The Hawaiian Kingdom is overthrown. A provisional government and then a republic are established until the United States can be persuaded to annex the islands.

1894 SUGAR: The U.S. Congress passes the Wilson-Gorman Act, restoring Hawai'i's sugar interests to their previously favored position under the 1875 Reciprocity Treaty.

1894 A stock exchange is formed in Honolulu.

1895 SUGAR: The Hawai'i Sugar Planters Association is formed. This year it is calculated that it takes 4,000 pounds of water to grow one pound of sugar.

1895 LABORERS: The Labor Commission of the Republic of Hawai'i warns of labor agi-

tators. Plantation workers begin to think of improved working conditions and higher wages.

1895 The Republic of Hawai'i enacts the Land Act of 1895, establishing a policy of merging Crown Lands with government lands, and then selling or leasing much of them to large plantations.

1895 SUGAR: Sugar production in Hawai'i reaches 150,000 tons a year.

1898 Hawai'i is annexed by the United States.

1898 MILITARY: The U.S. government decides to use Pearl Harbor and the areas now known as Fort Shafter and Schofield Barracks for military purposes. That same year the first permanent military garrison--infantry and engineers--is stationed at Camp McKinley in Waikīkī.

1900-1919

1900 By 1900, 70 percent of Hawai'i's lands are owned by non-Hawaiians.

1900 SUGAR: On seven islands there are 56 sugar plantations.

1900 Congress passes the Organic Act, formally making Hawai'i a territory. One provision limits agricultural leases of land to 1,000 acres and for only five years.

1900 PINEAPPLE: The pineapple industry begins at Wahiawā, O'ahu, with the Hawaiian Pineapple Company producing its first crop in 1903.

1900 PINEAPPLE: Young Brothers, Ltd. begins a maritime business with Walter Dillingham, barging canned pineapple from Hawai'i to the U.S. mainland.

1900 Congress provides money to dredge Pearl Harbor.

1900 to 1910 OTHER CROPS: Rubber trees are introduced as a crop, cotton is revived, and rice dies out.

1904 SUGAR: Hawaiian sugar producers gain control of a sugar refinery in San Francisco.

1904 TOURISM: The Hawai'i Chamber of Commerce donates $500 to promote tourism to the islands. This is the first instance of tourism promotion in Hawai'i.

1905 SUGAR: Sugar production in Hawai'i reaches 426,000 tons. By 1915 this will grow to 600,000 tons, and by 1932 a million tons.

1906 PINEAPPLE: James D. Dole erects the first pineapple cannery in Iwilei, Honolulu. It becomes the largest fruit cannery in the world.

1907 MILITARY: The Fort Shafter buildings are completed, becoming the first permanent military establishment in Hawai'i.

1907 TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION: Honolulu Harbor is improved as the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers creates the Kapalama channel and turning basin.

1908 LABORERS: By 1908 approximately 180,000 Japanese have come to Hawai'i and 126,000 have returned home.

1908 MILITARY: A naval base at Pearl Harbor is authorized by the U.S. government.

1909 MILITARY: Pearl Harbor development progresses with the first attempt to construct a dry dock facility, which proves unsuccessful. An improved dry dock is constructed in 1919.

1909 MILITARY: Schofield Barracks is occupied by U.S. troops.

1909 LABORERS: The first of many major plantation strikes begins. In future years major strikes occur in 1920, 1924, 1937, 1946, and 1958.

1910 The 1900 Organic Act is amended to permit the opening up of lands upon the request of 25 petitioners.

1912 PINEAPPLE: The first one million cases of canned pineapple are exported in a single year.

1913 PINEAPPLE: A major agricultural innovation, the Ginaca machine, is invented. It shells and cores pineapples.

1914 TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION: Honolulu benefits from the opening of the Panama Canal as many more ships stop for supplies in Hawai'i.

1916 The Waiāhole Project collects windward O'ahu water for the central O'ahu agricultural plantations.

1917 SUGAR: A heartier variety of sugar is produced and is quickly adopted by most Hawai'i plantations.

1918 In response to anti-German feelings resulting from World War I, Hackfeld & Co., a German firm, changes its name to American Factors. It is known today as Amfac.

1919 LABORERS: The Federation of Japanese Labor in Hawai'i is formed, reflecting laborers' growing awareness of the need to combine efforts to improve working conditions. Also formed this year is the Filipino Laborers Association.

1920-1939

1921 SUGAR: Sugar interests are successful in repealing all limits on leases (duration and size of leases) from the Organic Act.

1921 to 1926 Aloha Tower, the tallest structure in Hawai'i until the building of Tripler Army Hospital in 1948, is constructed on the Honolulu Waterfront.

1924 LABORERS: 3,000 Filipino plantation workers strike on Kaua'i. Led by Pablo Manlapit, head of the new Filipino Higher Wages Movement, the strike results in violence and suppresion by the National Guard.

1929 TOURISM: Matson Navigation Co. builds three luxury liners, providing weekly service to Hawai'i for tourists.

1930s Kress and Sears, national chain stores, open branches in Hawai'i.

1931 MILITARY: A great expansion of naval facilities at Pearl Harbor begins.

1933 The Big Five control 96 percent of Hawai'i's sugar crop, as well as related businesses in banking, insurance, utilities, wholesale and retail merchandising, railroad transportation, and shipping between the islands and California.

1934 SUGAR: The Jones-Constigan Sugar Act lowers the quotas for Hawaiian sugar imported by the U.S. mainland and significantly reduces the profits of the sugar companies in Hawai'i.

1934 LABORERS: The San Francisco waterfront strike stimulates Hawai'i's union movement.

1935 LABORERS: The U.S. Congress passes the National Labor Relations Act, which protects unions and stimulates their growth.

1935 to 1939 LABORERS: Hawai'i's first labor newspaper, *The Voice of Labor*, is published.

1935 to 1941 LABORERS: Union membership in Hawai'i grows from 500 in 1934 to 10,000 by 1941.

1937 SUGAR: The U.S. Congress passes the Sugar Act of 1937 which recognizes Hawai'i as a domestic sugar-producing area and allots to Hawai'i 25.25 percent of the domestic national quota.

1937 LABORERS: The Hawaiian Islands Federation of Labor is formed.

1937 LABORERS: Hawai'i's last single-ethnic group plantation strike is held by Filipinos on Maui. Hereafter, strikes represent coalitions of various ethnic groups.

1938 LABORERS: The first Filipino Labor Conference is held in Hawai'i.

1938 LABORERS: Hilo maritime workers strike.

1939 LABORERS: The Territorial Legislature establishes the Department of Labor and Industrial Relations, reflecting the growing importance of unions in Hawai'i.

1940-1959

1940 TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION: Pan American *Clipper* airplanes, with a capacity of 32 passengers, fly from the U.S. mainland in 19 hours.

1941 LABORERS: The first written contract with longshoremen is signed.

1943 The tax base for construction in Hawai'i is larger than sugar and pineapple combined, reflecting the growing urbanization of Hawai'i.

1943 LABORERS: In the face of growing union strength, the Hawai'i Employers Council is formed with 173 members.

1945 LABORERS: Passage of the Hawai'i Employment Relations Act makes possible the organization of agricultural workers by the International Longshoremen's and Warehousemen's Union (ILWU). As a result, the ILWU wins an election in 1945 to be the bargaining agent for these workers and in 1945 wins an industry-wide contract in the sugar industry, followed by industry-wide contracts in 1946 for pineapple workers and longshoremen. Having organized the three most important industries in the Territory, the ILWU becomes the most important labor force in Hawai'i.

1946 LABORERS: Unions begin to influence government as 14 candidates endorsed by the ILWU are elected.

1946 LABORERS: 21,000 sugar workers go out on strike. The strike lasts 79 days and costs the industry $20 million in lost trade and the workers over $8 million in wages.

1946 LABORERS: In 1946 there are 28,000 sugar workers, but by 1955 that number declines to only 17,000.

1947 LABORERS: In Hawai'i, the American Federation of Labor (AFL) can boast of 47 labor organizations, the Congress of Industrial Organization (CIO) 18, and together a membership of 50,000 to 60,000.

1948 The 14-story Tripler Army Hospital is completed, surpassing Aloha Tower as the tallest structure in Hawai'i.

1949 LABORERS: A major dock strike by the ILWU dramatically affects Hawai'i's economy as it lasts for six months.

1950 LABORERS: The ILWU is expelled from the CIO because of suspected communist influence. As the fear of communism spreads to Hawai'i, efforts are made in the early 1950s to destroy the unions by accusing their leaders of being communists.

1950 to 1960 MILITARY: The number of military personnel stationed in Hawai'i increases more than 100 percent.

1953 LABORERS: Seven Hawai'i union leaders are convicted of violating the Smith Act, which makes it a crime to be associated with a group advocating the violent overthrow of the government. On appeal, their convictions are later reversed.

1958 SUGAR: Amfac is producing 28.7 percent of Hawai'i's sugar, C. Brewer 23 percent, Alexander & Baldwin 19.4 percent, Castle & Cooke 14.2 percent, and Theo. H. Davies 9.8 percent.

1958 TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION: Matson begins containerized cargo service to Hawai'i, the first such innovation in the world, revolutionizing the cargo shipping industry. By using standardized containers suitable for transport on trains and trucks, cargo can be loaded at an inland point of origin, trucked to a port, loaded and shipped, unloaded and delivered without ever leaving the original container. In addition to the streamlining of loading and unloading operations, containerization is also important in preventing theft, for containers can be locked and protected more easily than loose cargo.

1960-1983

1960 PINEAPPLE: Approximately 65 percent of the world's supply of pineapples are grown on 75,000 Hawaiian acres, employing 6,000 plantation workers, 4,000 manufacturing workers, and an additional 11,000 young people from June to September.

1960 to 1970 TOURISM: During these ten years, the number of tourists coming to Hawai'i increase by 20 percent each year, for a total of a six fold increase. People arriving by ship decline as air travel begins to take over the tourist transportation system.

1966 Ala Moana Shopping Center is built. It is the largest shopping center in the world at this time.

1969 As population pressures for home ownership increase, the State enacts the so-called Maryland Land Law, which attempts to force large landowners who lease to convert homeowner leases to fee simple.

1970 The top sources of revenue in Hawai'i are defense with $709 million (42 percent), visitors with $645 million (38 percent), sugar with $210 million (13 percent), and pineapple with $135 million (7 percent). This reflects the continued dominance of Hawai'i's economy by a few very large industries.

1970-present Efforts are made by the State of Hawai'i to promote the diversification of the economy. Planning and various forms of government assistance are provided for an expanded fishing industry, aquaculture, diversified agriculture, the film industry, a potential manganese nodule processing industry, and several forms of alternative energy.

1970-present The State of Hawai'i promotes the development of ocean resources by funding programs in marine science and research, marine resource assessments, aquaculture, fisheries, marine transportation, harbor development at Barber's Point, ocean energy, ocean mining, and marine education.

1972-present PINEAPPLE and SUGAR: The production of pineapple and sugar cane begin to drop dramatically as Hawai'i has greater and greater difficulty in competing with world markets.

1973 TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION: Matson brings roll-on/roll off trailer ship service to Honolulu, a technology which permits easy loading and unloading of containers equipped with wheels.

1973-present An Arab oil embargo causes a nationwide energy crisis. Long gas lines appear in Hawai'i. Because Hawai'i is dependent on imported petroleum for 90 percent of its energy needs, the state government seriously explores and encourages the development of alternative energy sources such as geothermal, biomass, solar, wind, and ocean thermal energy conversion (OTEC). By 1980 Hawai'i has one of the highest per capita uses of solar hot water heating systems in the nation.

1978 The top employment sectors in Hawai'i are retail businesses with 79,000 employees (19.2 percent); state government with 43,000 employees (10.5 percent); the federal government with 29,300 employees (7.1 percent); finance, insurance and real estate businesses with 28,500 employees (6.9 percent); and hotel services with 23,100 employees (5.6 percent).

1978 Hawai'i's imports vastly exceed its exports. The value of the goods imported and exported in Hawai'i are as follows: imports from the mainland value $2,185,500,000; imports from foreign countries value $1,184,500,000; exports to the mainland value $494,700,000; and exports to foreign countries value $137,800,000.

1981 TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION: Matson's cargo operations are consolidated on Sand Island, streamlining harbor operations.

1981 The top five corporations based on operating revenues are Amfac, Castle & Cooke, Dillingham, Pacific Resources, and Hawaiian Electric.

1981 The top sources of revenue in Hawai'i are visitors with $3,200 million (61.6 percent), defense with $1,449 million (28 percent), sugar with $327.9 million (6 percent), and pineapple with $217.6 million (4 percent). The visitor industry now far exceeds defense as the major industry in Hawai'i.

Activities for the Outline, "The Modern Economic History of Hawai'i"

Activity 1: Introduction to the Outline

a. Read the items referring to the sandalwood trade between 1778 and 1839. What year did the trade begin? What year did it end?

b. Which of the following statements best reflects the relationship of the Hawaiians to the sandalwood trade?

The sandalwood trade was forced on the Hawaiians by opportunistic foreigners.

OR

Kamehameha and the chiefs willingly participated in the sandalwood trade, but the commoners did not profit.

OR

All levels of Hawaiian society enthusiastically participated in the trade and profited.

c. What evidence can you find to support your choice? List the information which supports your choice. Also make a short list of the evidence which you think makes the other two statements incorrect.

d. What other commerce was going on at the same time as the sandalwood trade?

e. Which of today's major economic activities can you find the beginnings of between 1778 and 1839?

f. What evidence can you find that foreigners were beginning to make Hawai'i their home?

Activity 2: Which Came First?

Number the following events from the economic outline in the proper sequence, the earliest as #1, the latest as #10.

_____ a. Major dock strike by the ILWU cripples Hawai'i's economy for six months.

_____ b. Fur traders from North America spend the winter in Hawai'i.

_____ c. Matson begins containerized cargo service to Hawai'i.

_____ d. The top two sources of revenue for Hawai'i are tourism and defense.

_____ e. An active trade in sandalwood is begun.

_____ f. At least 12,000 seamen visit Honolulu during a good whaling season.

_____ g. During a ten-year period, tourists coming to Hawai'i increase 20 percent each year, for a six-fold increase.

_____ h. A reciprocity treaty with the U.S. stimulates the growth of the sugar industry.

_____ i. The pineapple industry begins in Wahiawā, O'ahu.

_____ j. The U.S. Congress passes the National Labor Relations Act, which stimulates the union movement in Hawai'i.

Activity 3: True or False

_____ a. Sandalwood was brought to Hawai'i from China.

_____ b. Cattle, sheep, and goats were first brought by Vancouver.

_____ c. Hawaiians were traditionally skilled whalers before the westerners came to Hawai'i.

_____ d. In the nineteenth century, Hawai'i never had a diversified agricultural industry.

_____ e. The Masters and Servants Act of 1850 gave freedom to contract plantation workers.

_____ f. The first workers for plantations were Hawaiians.

_____ g. The American Civil War hurt the Hawaiian sugar planters.

_____ h. During the 1880s Claus Spreckels practically controlled the sugar industry in Hawai'i.

_____ i. King Kalākaua never did anything to assist the sugar planters.

_____ j. Hawai'i's sugar planters were against all tariffs.

_____ k. One reason why sugar could be grown on O'ahu was because of the discovery of artesian well water.

_____ l. By 1900 all of the people brought to Hawai'i as plantation labor had already arrived.

_____ m. Labor unions were accused of being influenced by communism during the early 1950s.

_____ n. The State of Hawai'i actively promoted diversification of the economy during the 1970s.

_____ o. Sugar and pineapple remain the leading sources of revenue for Hawai'i even today.

Activity 4: Statehood

Many people would argue that the most important event in Hawai'i's history was statehood. Certainly it has had important impacts on Hawai'i's social, political, and economic life. Still, many questions remain about the evolution of Hawai'i from a kingdom to a state.

The purpose of this activity is to better understand the statehood movement.

a. Read the economic outline from 1900 to 1959. What items can you find which might have contributed to Hawai'i's eventually becoming a state? Make a list of these. Now review the same information for any items that might have worked against statehood. Also list these.

b. Read the government and politics outline from 1900 to 1950. What items, if any, might have contributed to Hawai'i's eventually becoming a state? What items, if any, might have worked against statehood? Add these items to your lists.

c. Read the social history outline and add these to your lists as appropriate.

d. Review the land use outline and do the same thing.

e. Review your lists. Now choose one statement below that you agree with and write an essay defending it.

(1) It is a miracle that Hawai'i ever became a state. There were many factors which worked against the U.S. ever approving statehood for Hawai'i.

OR

(2) It was inevitable that Hawai'i became a state. There were tremendous economic, social, and political pressures for statehood.

OR

(3) While there were many factors which contributed toward statehood, the most important were economic.

OR

(4) World War II was the most important factor which made Hawai'i acceptable as a state.

OR

(5) Write your own statement regarding the causes of statehood and defend it.

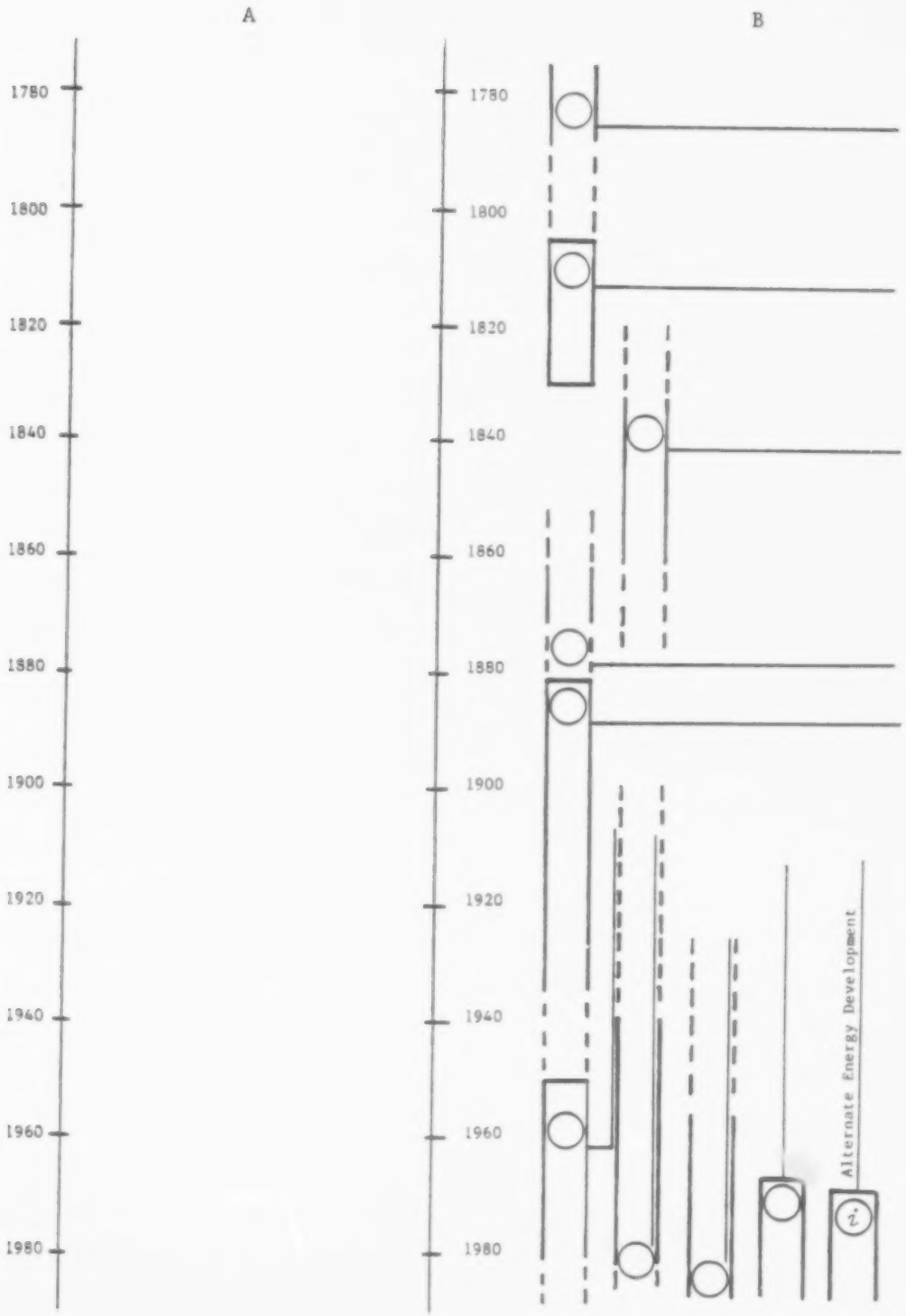
Activity 5: Economics Time Line

A. Plot and label the following events.

a. Major dock strike
b. Reciprocity Treaty
c. Introduction of cattle
d. First hotel
e. Luxury liners for tourists
f. Pineapple industry begins.
g. First Japanese laborers
h. National Labor Relations Act
i. Smith Act trial of union leaders
j. Masters & Servants Act
k. U.S. gets Pearl Harbor.
l. Work on Pearl Harbor begins.
m. First major plantation strike
n. Energy crisis
o. Civil War begins.

B. Label the correct periods.

a. Era of Economic Planning
b. Tourism
c. Defense
d. Sandalwood trade
e. Chiefs barter with foreigners.
f. Construction industry
g. Whaling
h. Plantation-based economy
i. Alternative energy development
j. Diversified agriculture


A
B
1780
1800
1820
1840
1860
1880
1900
1920
1940
1960
1980
Alternate Energy Development

282

Hawai'i's Economy in 1982: Recap and Outlook

Hawaii's economy continued sputtering weakly in 1982. Tourist arrivals and defense expenditures made good gains, but gains in these major sectors were cancelled by poor performances in a number of other sectors. Sugar, pineapple, and diversified agriculture all had troubles, diversified manufacturing declined, real estate remained depressed, and construction slumped further. Reflecting the weakness of the overall economy, the total number of jobs fell slightly, unemployment insurance claims increased, and retail sales dropped two percent in real terms (after adjustment for inflation). Total personal income for the first three quarters was up less than one percent in real terms, with what increase there was stemming largely from increases in transfer payments (welfare and Social Security) and property income (interest and rents). One bright spot was the slowdown in inflation, but on balance it was another unsatisfactory year.

We expect the economy to show some improvement in 1983. The extremely high interest rates that stifled economic activity for the last couple of years have slid to more tolerable levels. Lower rates will stimulate consumer spending, particularly for durable goods like cars and refrigerators; real estate should begin moving; and homebuilding will pick up. In addition, the rebuilding following Hurricane Iwa, funded largely by outside money in the form of insurance and federal disaster relief payments, will help the depressed construction industry. And tourism and defense, the mainstays of the economy, will continue strong.

Last year tourism rebounded after two flat years, with the visitor count increasing 7.8 percent and passing the four million mark for the first time. The increase was largely due to bargain air fares, thanks to a price-cutting battle between two new low-cost airlines and the established airlines serving the West Coast market. Other factors in the upturn were unusually cold weather in the East and Midwest during the winter months, and the Hawaii '82 campaign, the biggest effort ever undertaken to promote Hawaii tourism. However, more visitor arrivals didn't bring prosperity to the industry: those attracted by the discount fares weren't big spenders, and the many hotel rooms added right through the two-year tourist recession have kept occupancy down and room rates low. Waikiki and Kaanapali enjoyed fairly good occupancy rates, but other resorts suffered. It will take a number of years of increasing visitor flows before the excess hotel room capacity can be absorbed.

For 1983 we are forecasting a 5 percent gain in visitor numbers, a smaller rate of growth than in 1982 but we feel the catch-up factor in 1982 was large, coming on the heels of two flat years. The improving national economy augurs well for the industry, heavy promotion will help, and continued carrier overcapacity should keep air fares competitive.

The defense industry has remained relatively unscathed throughout the recession, even recording a substantial real gain with Washington's efforts to bolster national security. Last year civilian defense employment in Hawaii reached a nine-year high, and military expenditures increased to $1,718 million, up 17.3 percent from 1981. Military spending here will continue to rise in 1983, although probably at a slower rate than last year as there will be a smaller increase in pay rates and as Congress is seeking to trim the Administration's proposed defense budget for 1983-84.

The sugar industry cut its big 1981 loss by a large margin last year, but still ended with a loss for 1982, although some plantations showed a little profit. The industry was held above water by government support programs—price support, tariffs, fees, and import quotas. But such programs are open to attack in Congress, and the long-range future remains in doubt. The oversupply situation is not expected to improve this year because the European Common Market has no plans for a meaningful reduction in planting of its heavily subsidized sugar. So the Hawaii sugar industry is expecting a flat year, at best a small profit.

The pineapple industry is also beset with a world oversupply situation, and not much relief is in sight for this year. Hawaii's production will be cut, some of it permanently. But unless pineapple production is reduced in other areas of the world, our industry faces a tough future.

Diversified agriculture had a poor year in 1982. The dairy industry suffered a major setback with losses resulting from heptachlor contamination. Beef prices were weak, here and nationally. And weather took its toll on most crop areas last year. If the weather is not as destructive in 1983 as it was last year, the industry should resume its upward climb with export markets getting stronger as the national economy improves.

The value of construction put in place in 1982 was down 16.5 percent—not quite as bad as was expected before Hurricane Iwa hit. Declining private and public construction authorizations for the last two years, and the currently overbuilt inventory of hotels, condominiums, shopping centers, and office space made the drop in 1982 inevitable and foreshadowed a further drop for 1983. But the ill winds of the hurricane in November at least blew the construction industry some good—repair work improved the December figures, and rebuilding in 1983 could reverse the industry's decline. Another plus for 1983 is lower interest rates which should spur renewed building of single-family housing (the inventory of new single-family housing is low). There is certainly no big upturn in sight, but the industry should do better than it did last year.

So, with some parts of the economy moving and some still malfunctioning, the ride toward recovery in 1983 is likely to be a slow and bumpy one.

Activity

1. What kinds of information in "Hawai'i's Economy in 1982: Recap and Outlook" are used to determine the health of the economy?

2. Fill in the following chart based on the information in the reading.

Hawai'i's Economy	Strong Points 1982	Weak Points 1982	Forecast 1983
Overall			
Tourism			
Defense			
Sugar			
Pineapple			
Diversified Agriculture			
Construction			

Major Corporations in Hawai'i

1971 Total Revenues/Sales ($ Millions)		1981 Total Revenues/Sales ($ Millions)	
Amfac, Inc.	578.0	Amfac, Inc.	2,148.0
Castle & Cooke, Inc.	536.0	Castle & Cooke, Inc.	1,807.1
Dillingham Corporation	527.5	Dillingham Corporation	1,627.2
Alexander & Baldwin, Inc.	192.1	Pacific Resources, Inc.	1,081.5
C. Brewer & Co.	172.0	Hawaiian Electric Co., Ltd.	665.1
Hawaiian Telephone Co.	98.5	Alexander & Baldwin, Inc.	385.2
Hawaiian Electric Co., Inc.	93.4	Bancorp Hawaii, Inc.	322.1
Amelco Corporation	91.3	C. Brewer & Co., Ltd.	314.7
The Hawaii Corporation	86.9	Hawaiian Telephone Company	310.1
Theo. H. Davies & Co., Ltd.	86.3	First Hawaiian, Inc.	249.3
Bank of Hawaii	56.0	Hawaiian Airlines, Inc.	98.7
First Hawaiian Bank	48.8	Maui Land & Pineapple Co., Inc.	85.9
Crown Corporation	44.4	Aloha Airlines, Inc.	84.9
Telecheck International, Inc.	38.4	Amelco Corporation	74.2
Hawaiian Airlines	31.7	American Security Bank	49.7
Maui Land & Pineapple Co., Inc.	23.2	Central Pacific Bank	47.4
Aloha Airlines	17.6	Interisland Resorts, Ltd.	44.6
Capital Investment of Hawaii, Inc.	15.2	Crown Corporation	39.3
Pacific Resources, Inc.[1]	13.2	City Bank (CB Bankshares, Inc.)	36.2
Interisland Resorts, Ltd.	12.9	Liberty Bank	24.5
Mauna Kea Sugar Co., Inc.	10.4	Hawaii National Bank	19.0
Central Pacific Bank	9.1	Hawaiian Trust Co., Ltd.	9.4
Hawaiian Agricultural Co.	7.1	Bishop Trust	7.9
Liberty Bank of Honolulu	6.4	Bank of Honolulu	5.0
Bishop Investment Corp.	5.6		

1. Formerly Honolulu Gas Co., Ltd.

These listings are based on corporation annual reports.

Questions

1. Which of the original Big Five companies are on the 1971 and 1981 lists of Major Corporations in Hawai'i?

2. Which of the original Big Five were also the top five corporations in 1981?

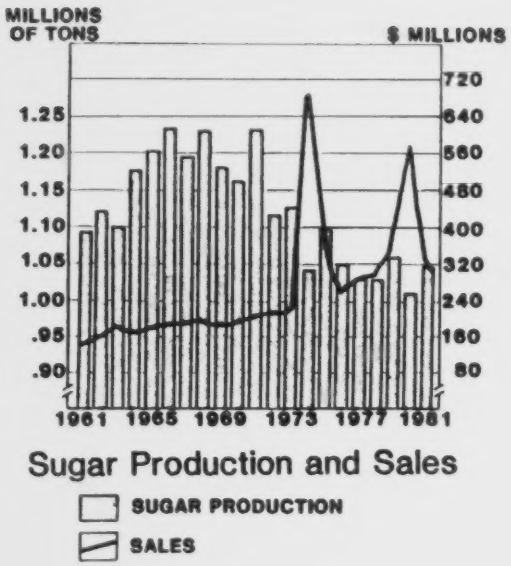
3. Comparing the 1971 list with the 1981 list, which corporation has grown tremendously in ten years?

4. Which corporation seems to have lost its place as a major corporation?

Agriculture

Sugar

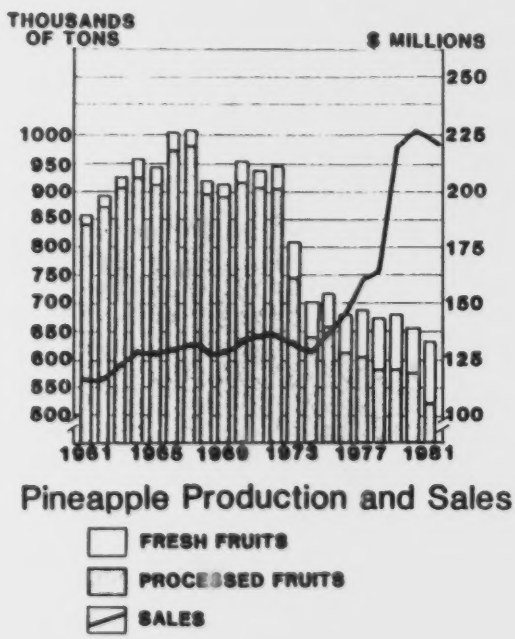
Although tourism and federal government spending have surpassed sugar in economic importance, sugar still is today the most important agricultural activity in the state. In 1982 sugar cane occupied 216,100 acres, which was 74.5 percent of all cropland in the state.



Sugar Production and Sales

Pineapple

Pineapple is second only to sugar in agricultural activity, in both acreage and sales.



Pineapple Production and Sales

Questions

1. Looking at both the sugar and pineapple graphs, how do you account for the overall decrease in production over the past 20 years with the general increase in revenues?

2. Can you explain the sharp increase in revenues in 1974, and again in 1980, in the sugar industry?

3. Why are the pineapple and sugar industries having difficulties today?

	Rank		Value of Production		Percent of Diversified Agriculture	
	1971	1981	1971	1981	1971	1981
			($ Thousands)			
Milk	2	1	13,226	30,320	20.2	15.8
Flowers and Nursery Products	5	2	4,484	29,599	6.8	15.4
Cattle	1	3	15,772	28,438	24.0	14.8
Macadamia Nuts	8	4	3,569	26,454	5.4	13.7
Vegetables and Melons	4	5	7,131	21,669	10.9	11.3
Fruits (Excl. Pineapple)	7	6	3,847	15,429	5.9	8.0
Eggs	3	7	7,438	15,159	11.3	7.9
Hogs	6	8	4,460	8,382	6.8	4.3
Broilers and Chickens	9	9	2,051	5,307	3.1	2.8
Forage and Forest Products	10	10	1,707	5,167	2.6	2.7
Coffee	11	11	1,014	4,480	1.6	2.3
Taro	12	12	787	1,305	1.2	0.7
Other Livestock	13	13	106	581	0.2	0.3
Total			65,592	192,290	100.0	100.0

Diversified Agriculture

Note the changes in rank among the various products over the ten-year period.

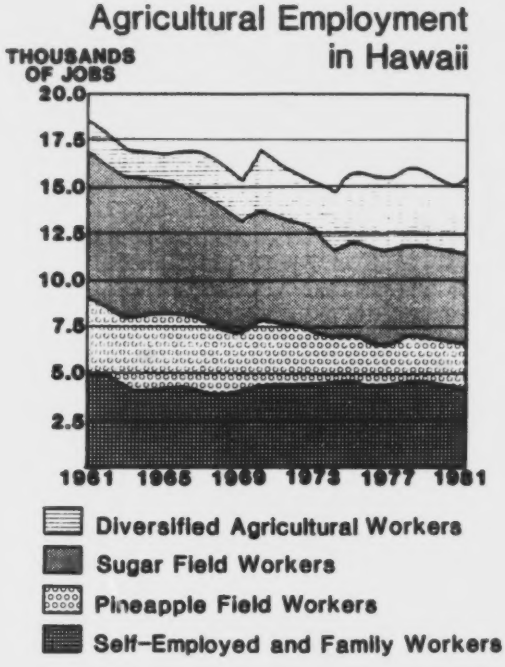
Activity

Someone interested in doing extra research may want to do a report on worldwide sugar production. Some questions to consider:

--Besides sugar cane, from what other plant is sugar extracted? Where is this plant grown in the U.S.? In the world?

--What other countries grow sugar cane?

A world map depicting specific places and quantities produced would be very helpful when giving a report.



What conclusions can you draw about agricultural employment in Hawai'i since 1961?

Diversified Manufacturing in Hawai'i
(Pineapple Canning and Sugar Refining Excluded)

Industry	# of Employers	Average # of Employees	Annual Average Wage
	(Dec.)		(Dollars)
Food Processing			
1971	133	3,676	7,044
1980	166	4,429	13,108
Textile & Apparel			
1971	112	3,263	4,728
1980	122	3,088	8,332
Lumber, Wood Products, Furniture & Fixtures			
1971	72	1,516	7,456
1980	71	840	13,874
Paper Products, Printing, Publishing & Allied Products			
1971	119	2,854	8,455
1980	177	3,284	15,695
Chemicals, Petroleum & Allied Products			
1971	23	950	10,334
1980	24	906	21,498
Stone, Clay, Glass & Concrete Products			
1971	34	1,614	11,050
1980	48	1,583	21,245
Fabricated Metal Products, Machinery & Transportation Equipment			
1971	43	1,120	9,019
1980	53	1,430	18,372
Miscellaneous			
1971	63	617	5,510
1980	68	1,039	10,560
Total Diversified Manufacturing			
1971	599	15,610	7,553
1980	729	16,599	14,298

Questions

Looking at the table, "Diversified Manufacturing in Hawai'i," answer the following questions.

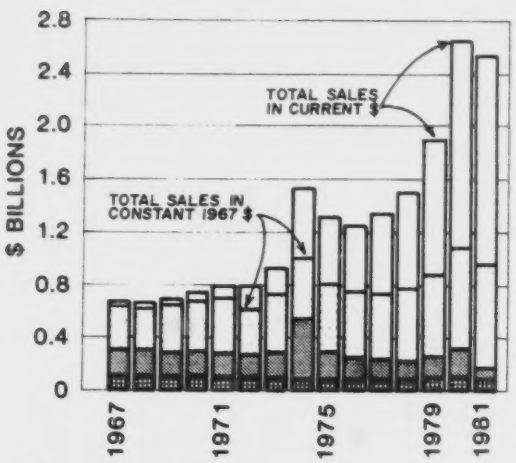
1. What type of industry has employed the largest number of people in diversified manufacturing?

2. Approximately how many more people were employed in each of the industries in the nine-year span? What is the total for all of the industries combined?

3. Compare the answers in question 2 with population growth between 1971 and 1980. (Where would you find the information giving population growth?) Assuming that at least half of the population increase is made up of people of working age, do you think diversified manufacturing played a significant role in employing these people?

4. Why do you think diversified manufacturing has not expanded significantly?

Manufacturing in Hawai'i



Manufacturing Sales
Adjusted by U.S. Producer Price Index:

- Diversified Manufacturing Sales
- Sugar Processing Sales
- Pineapple Processing Sales

Questions

1. What is the difference between "Total Sales in Current $" and "Total Sales in Constant 1967 $?"

2. Keeping the response to question 1 in mind, how would you compare sales in 1975 with 1978?

Number of Jobs, by Industry

(This table goes with the graph, "Twenty-Year Change in Employment.")

	1960	1970	1980
Federal Government[1]	27,010	33,380	30,000
State Government	14,620	30,600	45,150
Local Government	7,880	9,600	13,900
Retail Trade	31,160	53,230	86,700
Wholesale Trade	11,560	16,110	18,600
Hotels	4,330	13,380	24,900
Other Services	24,980	43,850	73,550
Transportation, Communication, Utilities	14,780	24,060	31,200
Construction	17,600	25,740	23,950
Finance, Insurance, Real Estate	9,240	18,160	32,850
Diversified Manufacturing[2]	12,390	15,720	16,500
Sugar[3]	14,630	10,930	8,900
Pineapple[3]	11,150	8,390	5,900
Diversified Agriculture[4]	6,790	NA	7,700
Non-Agricultural Self-Employed	19,930	NA	24,550

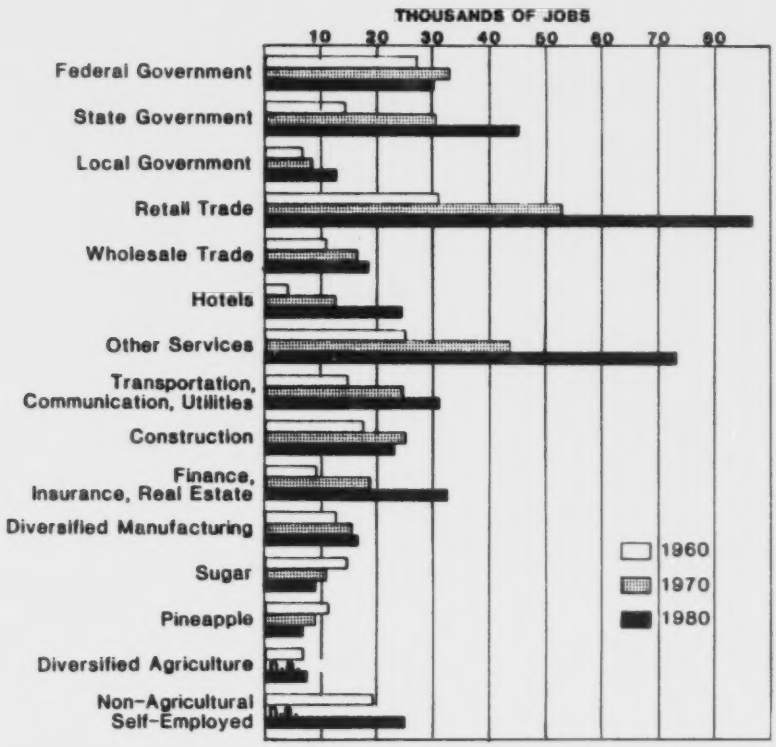
1. Excludes armed forces. Includes civilians working for the military as well as civilians in other types of federal government jobs.

2. Diversified manufacturing excludes pineapple canning and sugar refining. It includes other food processing and the manufacturing of textiles and clothes; lumber, wood products, furniture, fixtures; paper products, printing, publishing; chemicals, petroleum; stone, clay, glass, concrete; metal, machinery, transportation equipment; and other miscellaneous products.

3. Includes farming and food processing.

4. Diversified agriculture excludes pineapple and sugar cane. It includes wage and salary employees and self-employed in milk production, flowers and nursery products, cattle, macadamia nuts, vegetables, melons and other fruits, eggs, hogs, chickens, forest products, coffee, taro, and other livestock.

Twenty-year Change in Employment



This graph goes with the table, "Number of Jobs, by Industry." See footnotes under that table.

Questions

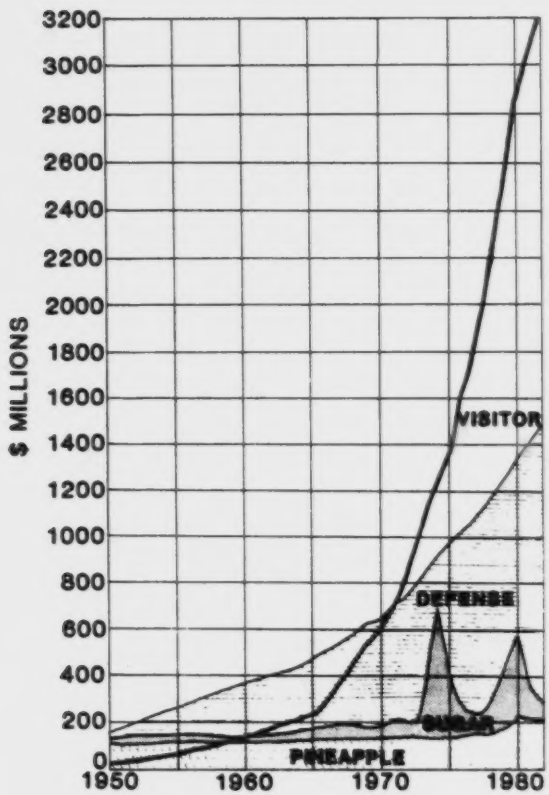
1. In 1980 what type of job employed the most people? The least? In 1970? In 1960?

2. Which job type has shown the greatest increase in number of people employed over the 20-year period? The second greatest increase? The third?

3. Which industries have shown a decrease in number of people employed?

4. Can the total number of people employed increase indefinitely? What do you think will happen in the future?

Income from Major Economic Activities 1950-1981



Note: Keep in mind the effects of inflation in driving up the dollar amounts over the past 30 years.

Questions

1. Look at the income from the four industries during these years: 1950; 1960; 1970; 1980. How would you compare them?

2. Noting the trends shown in the graph, and remembering recent news reports about these industries, what predictions might you make about each of the four industries?

3. The State Department of Planning and Economic Development made a study which suggested that economic growth generally increases population, and tourism, in particular, does so. Why do you think this is so?

The Importance of the Harbor

Activity

Think about your day, from the moment you awake to the time you go to sleep. Visualize the things around you. Of the items which come to mind, which ones do you think were brought to Hawai'i by sea? Make a list of them. Your teacher might tell you to work individually or in pairs.

Some statements and questions to guide you:

You wake up in the morning. Look around you in the bedroom. What do you see that might have come from outside Hawai'i?

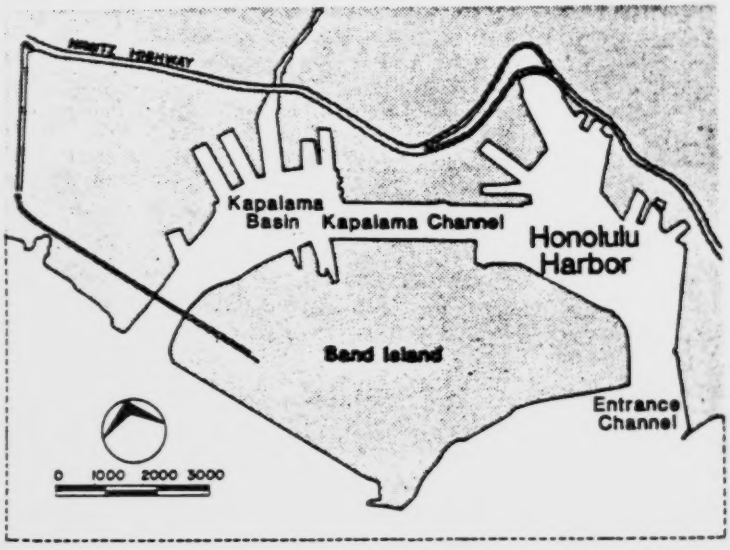
You go to the bathroom to wash your face. What is there that had to be imported to Hawai'i?

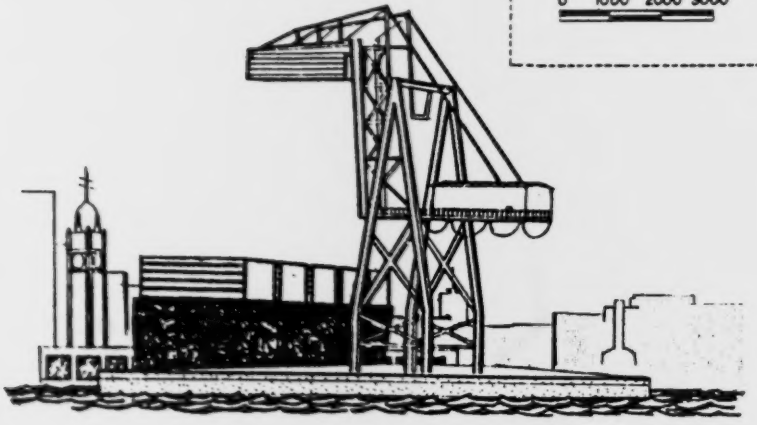
You go to the kitchen/dining room for breakfast. Then you go to school. What do you see?

You grab your things and head off for school. How do you get to school? What do you see on the way?

The bell rings at school and you enter class. What is there that you can add to your list?

Continue in this manner until you come to the end of the day. Read off items on your list so that the teacher can write them on the board. Note the variety and the number of items your class comes up with. We in Hawai'i are very much dependent on the outside world for much of our everyday living. The graphs and charts on the following pages illustrate this.





Trade with U.S. Mainland and Foreign Countries

Questions

1. Look at the graph showing total imports to Hawai'i. Two thousand million dollars is equivalent to how much money?

2. Graphs can be deceiving. Looking at the two graphs may give you the idea that Hawai'i's imports is just a little more than its exports. A closer look, however, shows that there is a tremendous difference. What was that difference in 1978? See table, "Trade in Hawai'i" for specific numbers.

Activity

Using the figures in the table mentioned above, draw two graphs, one showing total imports and the other showing total exports. Use the same scale for both graphs. You may need to tape together two or more sheets of graph paper for one of the graphs. How are your graphs different from the ones shown here?

Hawai'i's Trade with Foreign Countries

Questions

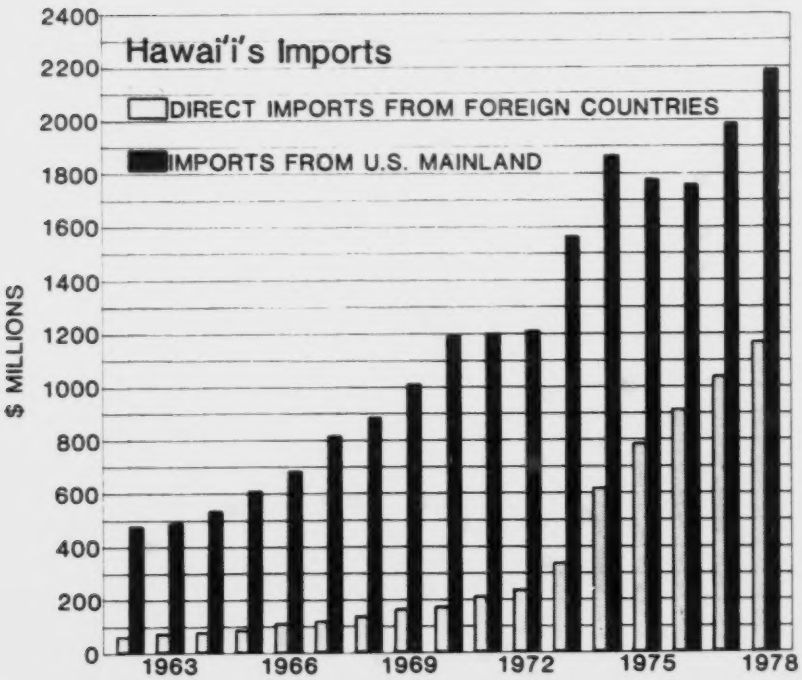
1. Look at the graph showing total foreign imports. Two thousand million dollars is equivalent to how much money?

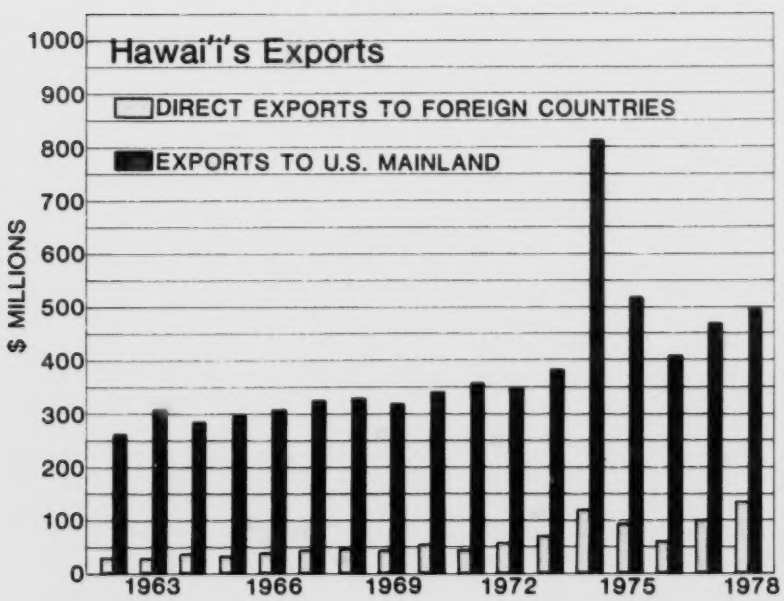
2. Graphs can be deceiving. A glance at the two graphs might give you the impression that the amount Hawai'i exports to foreign countries is just a little less than what it imports. A closer look, however, shows that there is a tremendous difference between our imports and our exports. What was that difference in 1981? See table, "Trade in Hawai'i," for exact numbers.

Activity

Using the foreign trade figures in the table, "Trade in Hawai'i," draw two graphs, one showing foreign imports and the other showing foreign exports. Use the same scale for the two graphs. You may need to tape together two sheets of graph paper for one of the graphs. How are your graphs different from the ones shown here?

TRADE WITH U.S. MAINLAND AND FOREIGN COUNTRIES

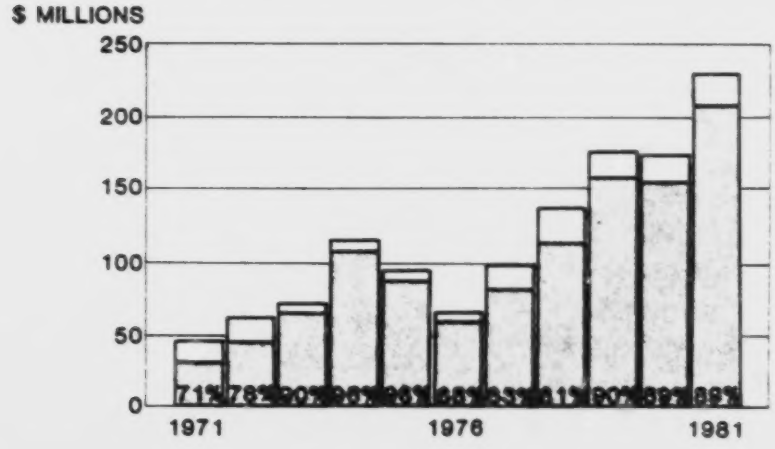




HAWAI'I'S TRADE WITH FOREIGN COUNTRIES

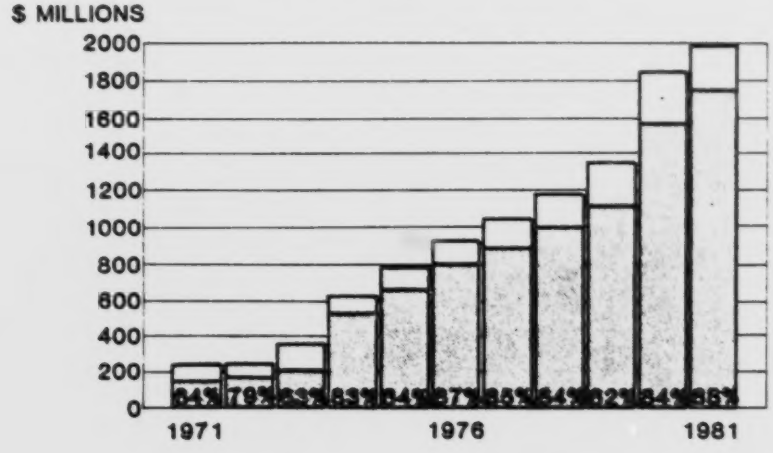
HAWAI'I'S FOREIGN EXPORTS

EXPORTS TO PACIFIC AND ASIAN COUNTRIES



HAWAI'I'S FOREIGN IMPORTS

IMPORTS FROM PACIFIC AND ASIAN COUNTRIES



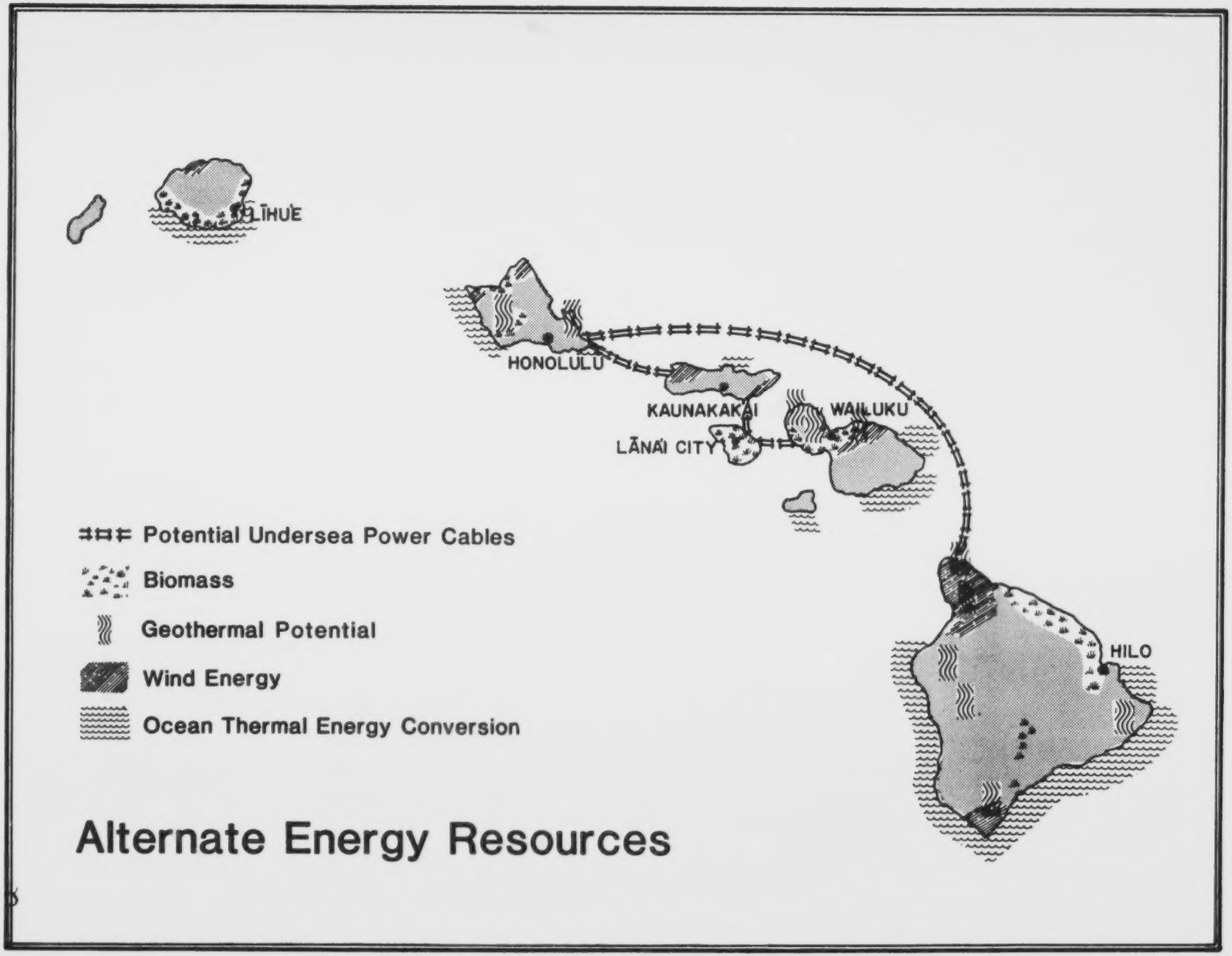
Trade in Hawai'i

Year	Direct Foreign Trade		Trade with U.S. Mainland	
	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports
	($ Millions)		($ Millions)	
1959	34.1	18.0	486.7	258.1
1960	47.0	20.3	519.1	243.5
1961	58.0	22.4	515.5	258.9
1962	68.3	28.1	480.1	265.5
1963	74.0	26.7	497.9	307.8
1964	85.8	38.2	567.1	283.4
1965	95.9	34.7	615.1	296.7
1966	107.2	40.6	688.8	310.6
1967	125.1	47.4	822.4	325.3
1968	142.5	48.6	886.7	329.1
1969	171.0	46.4	1,029.1	321.7
1970	174.7	51.2	1,194.1	339.8
1971	223.6	46.4	1,201.4	365.7
1972	244.3	60.4	1,220.0	350.2
1973	340.1	72.8	1,563.5	381.8
1974	621.5	113.1	1,866.2	817.0
1975	784.4	94.0	1,773.9	522.4
1976	915.1	66.2	1,756.3	415.2
1977	1,042.0	98.3	1,982.7	471.0
1978	1,184.5	137.8	2,185.5	494.7
1979	1,334.6	176.1	NA	NA
1980	1,841.2	174.4	NA	NA
1981	1,982.2	237.7	NA	NA

Hawai'i's Foreign Trade by Region

	1971	1981	Annual Change Average 1971/81
Imports	($ Millions)		(Percent)
North America (Canada)	21.9	24.9	1.3
Latin America[1]	8.2	117.2	30.0
Europe	12.2	94.5	23.0
Asia	154.9	1,696.8	27.0
Australia and Oceania	18.3	47.9	10.1
Africa	0.02	0.9	46.0
Total	215.5	1,982.2	25.0
Exports			
North America (Canada)	1.5	18.0	28.0
Latin America	0.4	2.9	22.0
Europe	10.1	5.8	(5.4)
Asia	18.4	115.3	20.0
Australia and Oceania	15.0	95.6	21.0
Africa	0.2	0.05	(12.9)
Total	45.6	237.7	18.0
Foreign Imports of Crude Oil & Fuel Products & Natural Gas Products	56.7	953.5	33.0

1. Includes Central America, Bermuda, the Caribbean and South America.



Alternate Energy Resources

Energy in Hawai'i

As an isolated island chain with no oil or natural gas resources of its own, Hawai'i is dependent upon imported petroleum for 90 percent of its energy needs. Fifty-five percent of petroleum consumed in the state originates in foreign countries, with Indonesia providing the bulk of these imports. Petroleum consumption in Hawai'i is esti- mated at 119,000 barrels per day for 1981, about 2,000 barrels a day less than in 1978.

More than 82 percent of the state's energy is consumed in the City and County of Honolulu, where four-fifths of the state's population lives. The County of Hawai'i (the Big Island) accounts for about 7.4 percent of energy usage, followed by Maui County with 7 percent and Kaua'i County with 3.3 percent.

The price of oil in Hawai'i has increased dramatically, as it has elsewhere, over the past decade. As the accompanying tables show, the average price of a barrel of crude oil rose from $3.39 in 1973 to $34.50 in 1981. During the 1973-80 period, total imports of fuel and petroleum products to Hawai'i increased more than five times from $227.3 million to $1.2 billion.

In the absence of indigenous fossil-fuel sources, Hawai'i's dependence on imported petroleum could have serious implications in the event of a supply disruption. Should petroleum supplies from Southeast Asia be interrupted, Hawai'i's refiners would be forced to seek crude oil elsewhere. Possible sources include the Persian Gulf area, Africa, the North Sea and the limited U.S. supply available on the open market. Securing this oil during a disruption could mean substantial increases in costs and prices to Hawai'i's consumers.

Because of this vulnerability, considerable effort has been made to reduce dependence on foreign crude oil. In 1975, for instance, one of the state's two refineries relied entirely upon foreign crude, while the other was 80 percent dependent. That has changed dramatically. Now, domestic crude oil, primarily from Alaska, accounts for 40 percent of total refined products. However, local refiners are unable to process larger quantities of Alaskan crude into those products desired in Hawai'i because of its higher sulfur content. The state's two refineries--Hawaiian Independent Refinery, Inc. and Chevron--must therefore rely on a flow of higher quality imports from Southeast Asia.

Progress has also been made in reducing the volume of refined petroleum products imported from outside the state. In 1975, about 47 percent of market demand for refined products was met from outside sources. This was reduced to 31 percent by 1980 and has dropped even further since then. Reducing imports of refined petroleum products allows local refineries greater flexibility in inventory management and, as a result, lessens the impact of any sudden supply disruption.

To further reduce dependency on fossil fuels, Hawai'i has done much to develop "alternate" or "renewable" sources of energy.

The state predicts that the Islands can become 90 percent self-sufficient in electrical energy by the year 2005. Currently, about 25 percent of imported fuels are used for electricity. While this projection is encouraging, a meaningful transition to alternate energy will require time and investment.

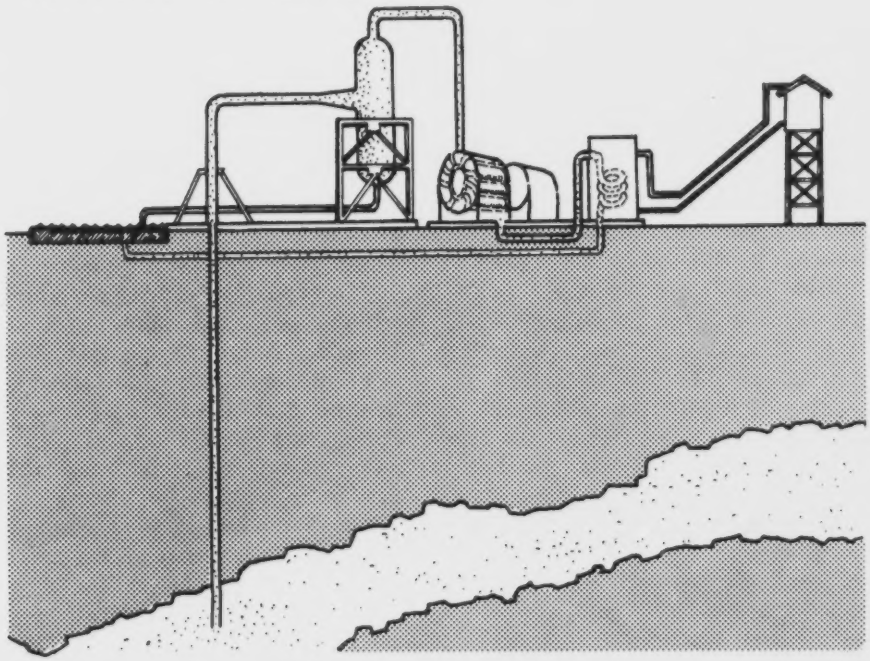
Alternate Energy Resources

Hawai'i has five major alternate energy resources that offer good potential for development.

Geothermal energy, heat released from the earth, has some exciting possibilities. There are promising sites with sufficient heat to generate this form of electricity on the Islands of Hawai'i and Maui. One of the hottest geothermal wells in the world was drilled on the Big Island in 1979 to a depth of 6,450 feet.

The first commercial use of geothermal energy in tne state was realized in February 1982 in the Puna District of the Big Island. The project is operated by the Big Island's Hawai'i Electric Light Co., a subsidiary of Hawaiian Electric Co. of Honolulu, under a contract with the University of Hawai'i. Hawaiian Electric, in cooperation with public agencies, plans to continue research and development of this interesting energy source.

The exploitation of geothermal energy is relatively capital-intensive compared with conventional fossil fuel power plants. The need for high initial investment could discourage major developments. Over the long-run, however, geothermal energy can become competetive because of lower ongoing costs.



Biomass, in the form of bagasse, a fibrous waste from sugarcane, currently provides 8-9 percent of the state's total energy. About 40 percent of the electricity distributed on the Islands of Hawai'i and Kaua'i is generated from biomass.

Pacific Resources, Inc., in cooperation with the U.S. Department of Energy, is also engaged in studying the viability of using vegetation to make liquid or vapor fuels. PRI's research team has already determined that eucalyptus, which grows from seed to harvestable crop in five years, would be most suitable for such a project in Hawai'i. The process involves passing eucalyptus wood chips through a high pressure, high-heat chamber, rich in hydrogen. Through this process some of the carbon in the wood becomes hydrocarbon, resulting in oils that can then be refined.

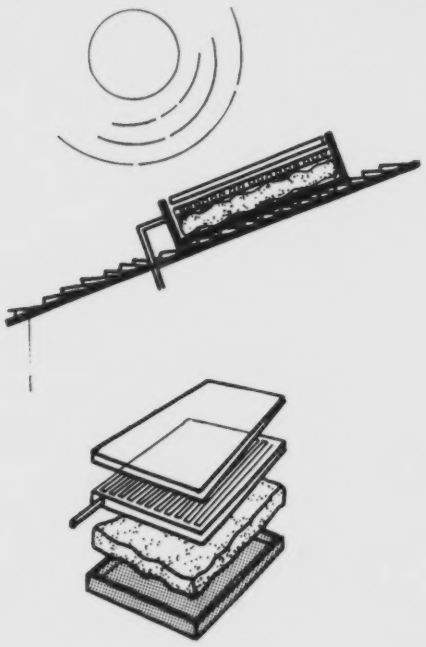
The study suggests that a tree farm and factory could be established. Fifty thousand acres and $61 million would be required to realize 1,000 barrels a day from eucalyptus trees.

Other forms of plant life which show promise as energy sources include lucaena (a forest product), pineapple waste, and single-cell salt-water algae, which converts sunlight directly to oil.

As research and development efforts mature, biomass will continue to play a major role in Hawai'i's energy future and other sources should play increasingly important parts.

Solar Radiation

Solar radiation in Hawai'i provides an important source of alternate energy. Estimates put the number of solar flatplate waterheaters installed in the state at 13,000 units at the end of 1981. There are also a number of concentrating collector and photovoltaic, or solar cell, projects underway. Solar cells convert solar radiation directly to electricity, but their cost remains high. Thus far, major users of solar energy have been residential units. Development of large-scale applications has yet to be explored.

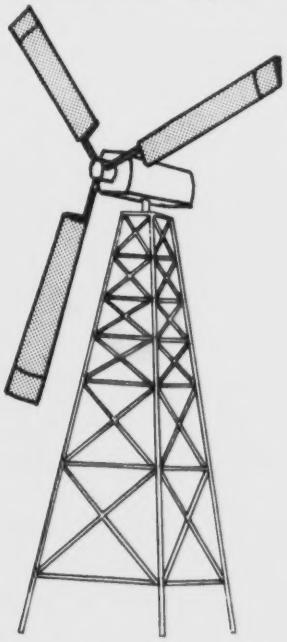


Wind

The northeast tradewinds that blow across the Hawaiian chain represent one of the most stable wind patterns in the United States. This makes Hawai'i a very suitable location for wind power experimentation.

There are a wide variety of small wind-machines (in the range of 2- to 40-kilowatts) in operation or under construction throughout the state. A 200-kilowatt experimental wind turbine on the North Shore of Oahu produced 1.17 million kilowatt-hours of electricity during a recent 17-month period. This was the equivalent of using 2,000 barrels of oil. The cost of initial

financing and the lack of certainty regarding the outcome of these ventures have slowed efforts toward commercialization of wind energy. However, research and development continue to produce more efficient equipment, and wind energy offers important potential opportunities.

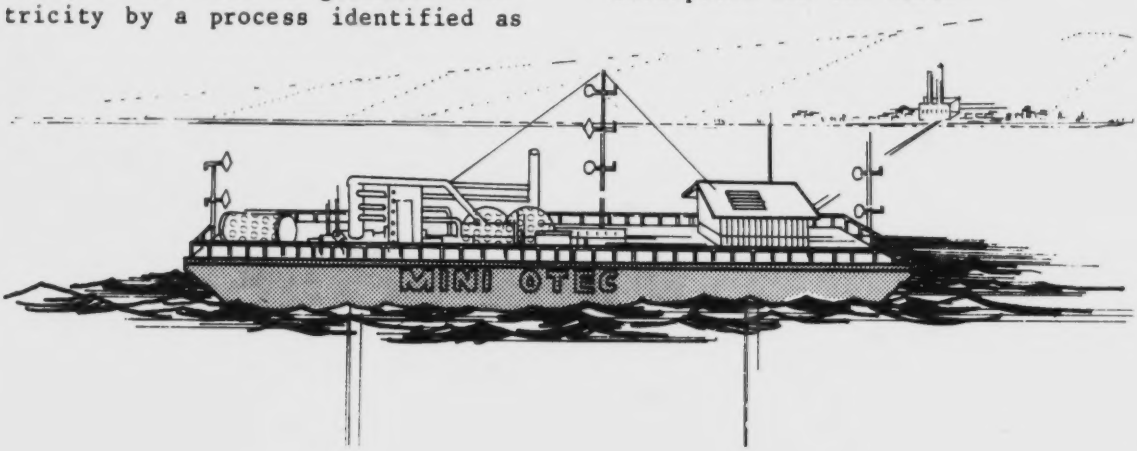


Ocean Thermal Energy Conversion (OTEC)

The ocean itself is an excellent solar collector. The temperature difference between warm surface waters and the cold deep waters below can be used to generate electricity by a process identified as Ocean Thermal Energy Conversion (OTEC). Hawai'i is an ideal place for OTEC development, because there is no continental shelf surrounding the Islands, and deep ocean water lies close to shore.

The first fully operational close-cycle OTEC system in the world, a 1979 joint venture of Lockheed, Dillingham Corp. and the State of Hawai'i, proved that OTEC offers a serious alternate energy source. Public and private research continues to produce the technology that can make this source of energy profitable.

It is obvious that there are numerous potential alternate energy resources available to the state. If commercially developed, they would not only make Hawai'i less dependent on foreign oil, but the technology could be transferred to other Pacific countries and territories. However, the risk and uncertainty, and high initial costs, can make such investments less than appealing to private concerns. With government assistance to help with initial research and development in experimental stages, private companies may be encouraged to participate. As in the past, joint public and private cooperation is likely to make alternate energy development in Hawai'i a continuing major enterprise for the 1980s.



FUEL IMPORTS TO HAWAI'I

($ Thousands)

Year	Total Imports of Fuels & Petroleum Products: Domestic[1]	Foreign[1]	Total[1]	Total[1] Merchandise Imports (Foreign & Domestic)	Imported Fuels & Oil Products As A % of Total Merchandise Imports
					(Percent)
1960	39,807	6,874	46,681	566,131	8.2
1961	44,847	24,238	69,085	573,853	12.0
1962	25,642	31,939	57,581	546,758	10.5
1963	26,524	30,825	57,349	569,876	10.0
1964	24,824	37,855	62,679	650,141	9.6
1965	26,189	42,439	68,628	1,174,656	5.8
1966	32,761	46,544	79,305	965,413	8.2
1967	39,107	54,516	93,621	982,228	9.5
1968	40,367	57,099	97,466	1,052,624	9.3
1969	46,000	60,663	106,663	1,015,033	10.5
1970	69,600	44,600	114,200	1,396,585	8.9
1971	51,900	56,716	108,616	1,214,693	8.9
1972	50,800	62,661	113,461	1,425,567	8.0
1973	119,930	107,411	227,341	1,855,713	12.2
1974	204,116	312,967	517,083	2,472,604	20.9
1975	163,729	555,773	719,502	2,824,149	25.5
1976	149,624	537,328	686,952	3,200,581	21.5
1977	152,724	591,673	744,397	3,526,677	21.1
1978	203,533	544,124	747,657	3,861,344	19.4
1979	448,985[E]	575,778	1,024,763	4,515,868[E]	22.7
1980	617,451[E]	587,960	1,205,411	5,381,300[E]	22.4
1981	**NA**	**NA**	**NA**	**NA**	**NA**

SOURCE: [1]Hawaii's Income & Expenditure Accounts 1958-1980, Department of Planning and Economic Development, Table 62. E=Estimated. NA=Not Available.

OPEC AVERAGE* CRUDE OIL OFFICIAL SALES PRICE

(U.S. $ per barrel)

1970	1.80
1971	2.23
1972	2.48
1973	3.39
1974	11.29
1975	11.02
1976	11.17
1977	12.88
1978	12.93
1979	18.67
1980	30.87
1981	**34.50**

*F.O.B. prices set by the government for direct sales, and weighted by the volume of production.

SOURCE: Economic and Energy Indicators, 25 June 1982. Directorate of Intelligence for 1973-1981 and 1970-1972. Business Week Feb. 2, 1974.

Questions

1. How much of the fuel we import is used for electricity? What are some of the uses of fuel not used for electricity?

2. Most of our fuel imports come from what country?

3. How is crude oil from Alaska different from that of Southeast Asian countries?

4. What are some alternate energy resources? What do you know about each of them?

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The Film Industry in Hawai'i

Hawaii's chances of attracting new industries are limited by our isolated location, lack of natural resources, and determination to preserve the scenery. The plain fact is that there isn't much here to attract new industry **except** the scenery, plus the climate. As a result the visitor industry is our biggest success. But tourism is vulnerable, and we would like to have our economic eggs in a few more baskets, so we are always hoping for new industries—provided they don't mar the scenery.

One industry which fits our specifications almost perfectly is filmmaking—shooting movies, TV shows, and TV commercials amidst Hawaii's scenic backdrops. Last year the $31 million spent in Hawaii by filmmakers was more than the value of cattle sales or macadamia nuts or flowers and foliage. Of course $31 million is less than one percent of the revenues we derive from the visitor industry, but every little bit helps.

Hawaiian scenery has appeared in 116 movies during the last 70 years, from *Hawaiian Love* and *The Shark God*, which were filmed here in 1913, to notable productions like *South Pacific* and *The Old Man and the Sea*. By the 1970s, when CBS was spending $9 million here annually on the TV series "Hawaii Five-0," government officials began to sit up and take notice of the economic possibilities of this somewhat oddball industry. In 1978 the State Department of Planning and Economic Development set up the Hawaii Film Office to promote Hawaii's advantages as a location for filming and to provide assistance to producers who come. Dr. Henry L. Wong, manager of this small, low-budget office, advertises Hawaii in trade publications like *The Hollywood Reporter* and *Variety*, phones producers who may be considering a Hawaii location, suggests places to shoot, makes arrangements for permits, helps Japanese TV crews with visa problems, etc. Thanks at least in part to Wong's work, there were 66 motion pictures and TV features plus over 240 foreign TV commercials filmed here in 1982. Currently, the popular "Magnum P.I." TV series is spending around $20 million a season filming in Hawaii.

Hawaii's advantages for filmmakers are the varied locations within short distances (mountains, ocean, beaches, boats, gardens, rain forests, temples, posh restaurants, dilapidated shacks, grand mansions, busy city streets, small towns), no billboards to block views, clear air, good weather, a diverse population, and plenty of excellent hotel accommodations.

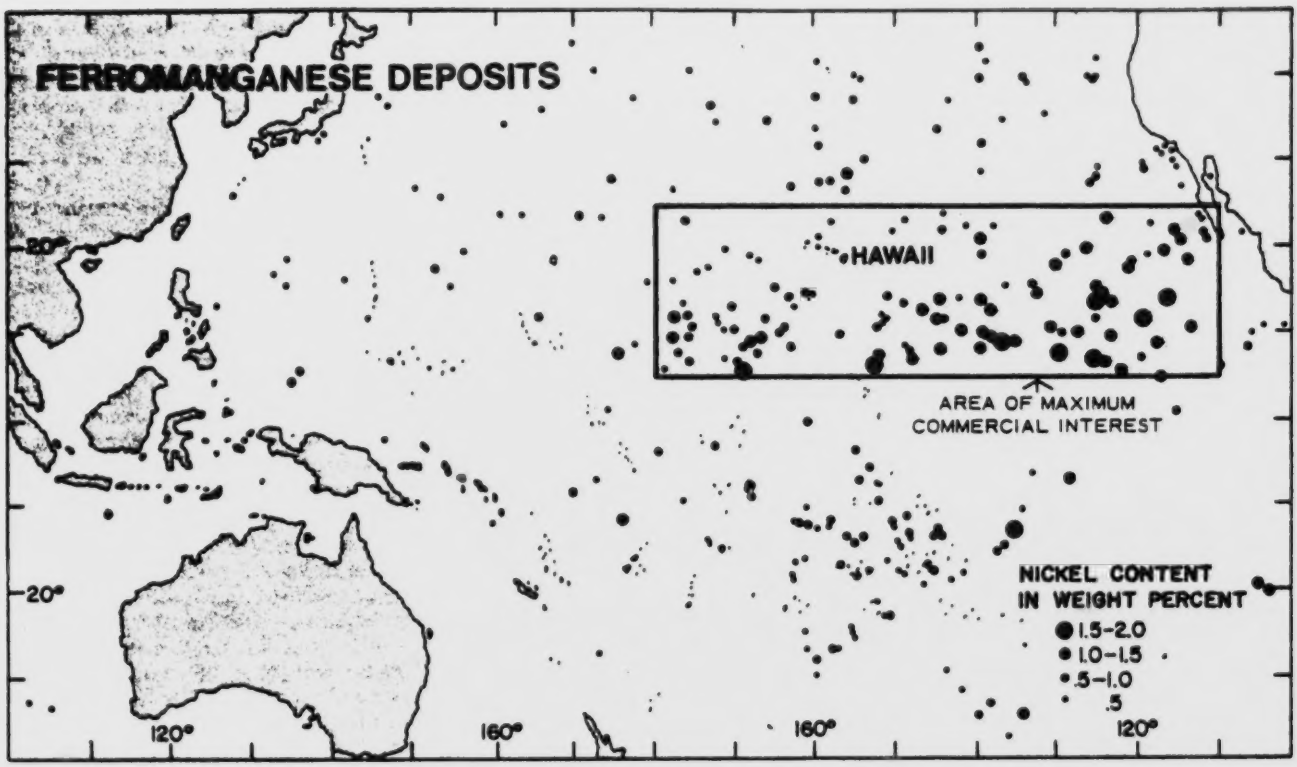
Hawaii's biggest disadvantage from the filmmakers' viewpoint has been the cumbersome problem of getting assorted government permits required for using beaches, parks, streets, or any other public area for commercial filming. The problem was alleviated to some extent in the past by efforts of the Hawaii Film Office to expedite the permit process, and should be simplified further by the Legislature's recent passage of a bill to allow "one-stop shopping" for filmmakers seeking permits to shoot in Hawaii. Still, as Hideto Kono (former director of the Department of Planning and Economic Development) pointed out, the film industry should be encouraged but the State must also protect parks and historic places from misuse and allow its own residents to enjoy the beaches; visiting filmmakers "must be educated, too—they just can't come here and take over."

Another disadvantage for filmmakers who come to Hawaii has been the lack of support services such as sound stages, post-production facilities, etc. Now the support services are beginning to sprout. For years the only soundproofed studio in Hawaii was the State-owned studio at Diamond Head built by CBS to film "Hawaii Five-O." Universal Television's "Magnum P.I." is using it now on a month-to-month revocable lease, but it is slated to be turned over to Kapiolani Community College for classrooms. Meanwhile Gentry-Pacific Inc. has built a smaller studio at Waipio, not yet soundproofed though it could be if Gentry had a tenant. Hawaii International Studio has completed a sound stage at Halawa Central Park, and Aloha Studios is planning a movie studio complex in Pearl City. Also needed are adequate post-production services (one major company is considering coming into Hawaii) and screening rooms (at present visiting filmmakers have to use theaters at off-hours or fly their footage back to California or Japan to view it). As such facilities and services increase, Hawaii will be able to handle more of the film industry's requirements and gain a bigger share of the gross budgets for productions. But the pioneers may have to hang in for a while until it all comes together.

The advantages to Hawaii of encouraging filmmaking here are obvious: it doesn't pollute, it brings in money, it creates jobs (for all kinds of workers, from truck drivers to film editors), it helps fill hotel rooms and restaurants with visiting crews, it promotes tourism by showing Hawaii's colorful scenery on TV and movie screens in faraway places, and it is fun to watch (look at Hanapepe turned into old Australia, or beautiful models posing by sailboats on the beach). Disadvantages of the film industry for Hawaii are minor: (1) income for Hawaii is not as steady and dependable as that from defense expenditures—but no income source is absolutely steady and dependable; (2) many of the jobs are temporary, as filmmakers come and go—but even a three-day job as an extra could be the start of a show-biz career; and (3) setting up and shooting scenes sometimes blocks off parts of our beaches and streets—but only temporarily, and all the equipment soon vanishes without a trace. Therefore let us be patient with the inconveniences of this rather attractive industry, and give our warmest aloha to the filmmakers.

Manganese Nodule Potential

by Jonathan Pai



They represented universities, government agencies and big corporations, primarily in the U.S., but also in the United Kingdom, West Germany, Japan, and South Korea. They've already spent more than $300 million in the private sector alone for research and development--without seeing a single dollar in revenue. And despite formidable obstacles, they said they expect a large-scale manganese nodule mining and processing industry to be established in the Pacific Ocean, perhaps within 10 or 15 years.

"They" were experts in oceanography, mining technology, metallurgy, environmental studies, finance, and international law attending a State of Hawai'i-sponsored conference entitled "Marine Mining: A New Beginning," July 18-21 [1982] in Hilo, Hawai'i.

Also present was a contingent of Hilo-area residents concerned about the environmental impact of any future nodule industry, both on land and in the sea. Among those participating in the conference's technical sessions were several locally known environmentalists and native Hawaiian activists.

Manganese nodules, the object of all the interest, are potato-sized rocks found on about 15% of the

world's seabed at depths between 12,000 and 18,000 feet (3,600 to 5,500 m). They contain nickel, copper, and cobalt, in addition to manganese--metals that are valuable in steel making, in electrical equipment, and in specialized industrial machinery.

Nodules in greatest abundance, with highest metallic quality, and in the most accessible terrain, are located in the Clarion-Clipperton Fracture Zone in the eastern Pacific, extending from Hawai'i to Mexico. It is there that the corporate miners are concentrating their research and long-term plans.

Although previous expectations had been optimistic, the mood of industry representatives at the conference was largely one of frustration. "We are wasting technological resources because of nontechnical factors," grumbled one leading mining engineer.

Worldwide economic conditions, plus the uncertain fate of the new Law of the Sea Treaty, are the immediate obstacles that have stopped the industry in its tracks. In the long term, further problems are expected to arise from numerous unanswered environmental questions.

Economically, 1982 has been a rough year for the mining industry. Prices for copper, nickel, and cobalt have stabilized or dropped, making large investments in new mining ventures appear unwise.

Moreover, estimates of the recoverable and usable amount of metal on the ocean floor are being considerably scaled down from the enthusiastic predictions made a decade ago. A respected British geologist stated at the conference that "potentially economic resources of nickel, copper, cobalt, and manganese in nodules are neither enormously more nor enormously less than economic resources on land."

But those land mineral deposits are concentrated in a handful of countries that governments and big business in the industrialized West consider unreliable trading partners. Rather than depend on sources in Chile, Peru, Zaire, South Africa, and the Soviet Union, they argue, it is preferable to mine the oceans directly.

The companies that make up the international manganese nodule ventures--called "consortia" by those in the industry--include U.S. Steel, Kennecott Copper, International Nickel, British Petroleum, Standard Oil of Indiana, Lockheed Missiles, Mitsubishi Corporation, and Sumitomo Heavy Industries. They either mine the metals already on land, or use them extensively in manufacturing, and have strong interest in developing new sources.

Whatever the economic incentive, however, no consortium will undertake nodule mining in the present uncertain waters of international politics. The U.S. refusal to sign the new Law of the Sea Treaty was largely because of the treaty's seabed mining clause requiring engineering mining technology transfer to the United Nations' own mining operation. [That is, the U.S. would have to transfer its technology to less developed countries.]

Theoretically, a consortium could begin mining in violation of the treaty. But conference speakers pointed out that such a risky political action would probably scare off any normally cautious banker, whose participation is essential to the success of a venture.

There are several complex legal approaches that could eventually iron out the impasse on the treaty, but any solution will take years, said the international law specialists at the conference. Add those years to the additional time re-

quired for refinement of the technology of mining and processing, and there is clearly no chance of large-scale commercial activities before the mid-1990s.

Environmental damage is the joker in the deck. A nodule processing plant--which officials in Honolulu and Hilo are aggressively promoting for placement on the Big Island of Hawai'i--would produce up to 3 million tons per year of solid waste material.

Opinions differ on the possible toxicity of the wastes. In any case, they must be disposed of, either in a landfill, in a coastal outfall, or in deep ocean dumping. A Lockheed scientist at the conference acknowledged that the disposal problem remains unsolved so far.

The actual mining processes will also affect the ocean environment by stirring up vast areas of the ocean floor as well as the two-mile column of water through which the mining devices must travel. All the mining systems under consideration will have those effects, whether it's the relatively simple, Japanese-designed conveyor belt and steel-mesh bucket system; or Lockheed's gigantic robot miner that moves along the seabed propelled by a large "Archimedes screw."

A seven-year U.S. government study observed several consortia experimental mining ships during the late '70s. The study recorded no short-term adverse effects near the ships themselves.

However, the project manager for that study, in a talk at the conference, cautioned that many questions are still not answered: "It is often preferable not to do something because we do not know all the consequences," he said. "There are some places we can say for sure, 'Don't dump wastes.' There are others where we can only say that we don't know for sure."

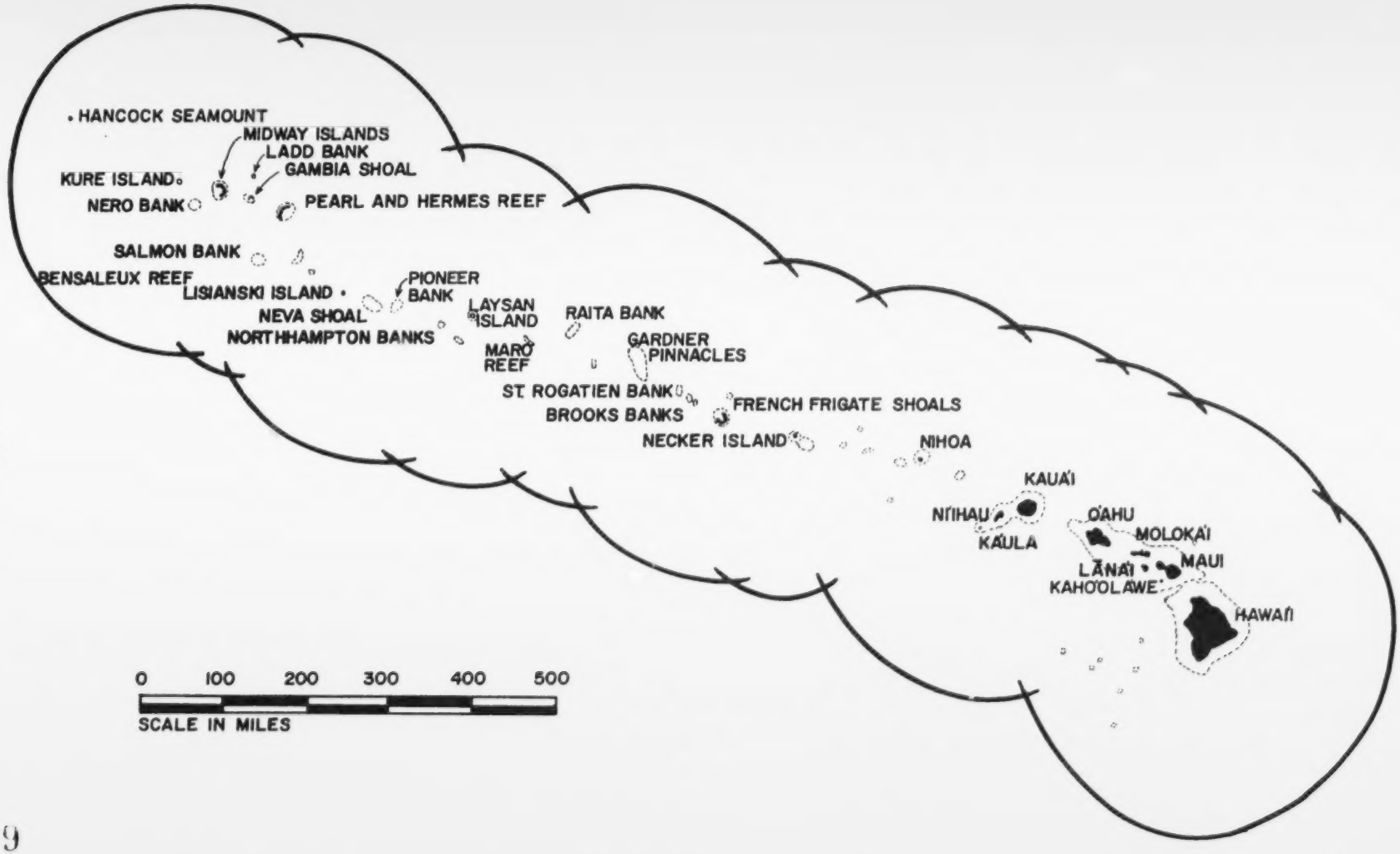
Both the Law of the Sea Treaty and the current U.S. law on marine mining require land and sea environmental impact assessments before collecting nodules commercially.

For many at the conference, the budding manganese nodule industry is in a state of suspended animation. But sooner or later, perhaps in 10 years, perhaps in several decades, they expect to begin the era of seabed mining.

Questions

1. What do you think of the U.S.'s refusal to sign the Law of the Sea Treaty? Do you think a more technologically advanced country should share its knowledge with less developed countries? What are the advantages and disadvantages for the U.S.?

2. What are the benefits of mining for manganese nodules? What are the risks? Which carries more weight with you, the benefits or the risks?



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U.S. 200-Mile Fisheries Conservation Zone

The U.S. 200-Mile Fisheries Conservation Zone

Questions for Map

In 1976 the U.S. Congress declared a 200-Mile Fisheries Conservation Zone off the U.S. coastline. In this zone, fishing is controlled to benefit local fishermen and conserve the resource. Limits are set for how much local and foreign vessels can catch.

1. How many islands can you count in the Hawaiian chain?

2. Why is the Fisheries Conservation Zone (FCZ) shaped like a cloud?

3. Why are none of the circles closed?

4. What is the closest you could get to a land mass and still be outside the 200-mile FCZ?

5. How does the FCZ reinforce the archipelago concept?

6. Why would it be difficult to patrol the FCZ area?

7. Using the scale in miles on the map, calculate approximately how many square miles are in Hawai'i's FCZ.

8. What implications do you think the FCZ has for

   a. local fishermen?

   b. foreign fishermen?

   c. national defense?

   d. protection of whales?

Permissions

We thank Marion Kelly of the Bishop Museum for writing the selections, "The Māhele," and for helping us write the selections, "Bishop Estate Lands," and "The Crown Lands, after the Great Māhele."

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p. 218 "The Film Industry in Hawai'i." From First Hawaiian Bank, "Economic Indicators," May/June 1983, p. 1. Used by permission.

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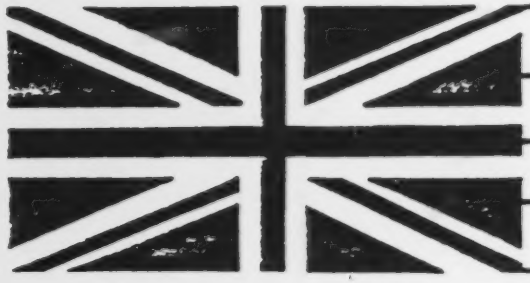
THE SHAPING OF MODERN HAWAIIAN HISTORY



DATABOOK AND ATLAS

TEACHER ANSWER BOOK

The Shaping of
Modern Hawaiian History

DATABOOK AND ATLAS

TEACHER ANSWER BOOK

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INTRODUCTION

The *Databook and Atlas* provides supplementary materials for the course, Modern History of Hawai'i. We developed this book as a result of feedback we received from teachers who said they would like more information on subject areas introduced in the five-unit series, *The Shaping of Modern Hawaiian History*.

Thus we include, for example, "The Māhele" and "Crown Lands, after the Great Māhele," which can be used with Units I and II; "Naturalization: How to Become an American Citizen," which can be used with Unit III; "The Admission Act," which can be used with Unit IV; "The Office of Hawaiian Affairs," which can be used with Units I and V; and "Population by Islands" and land ownership maps, which can be used with all five units.

In addition, we include maps and data on additional subject areas which give students a better understanding of contemporary Hawai'i. There are numerous maps--basic outline maps, as well as maps showing military land use, land use districts, major elevations, coastal zone management areas, and the Pacific basin. We also include items such as "Energy Resources in Hawai'i," "Twenty-Year Change in Employment," and "Manganese Nodule Potential."

There are four history outlines on land use, government, the economy, and the social history of Hawai'i. They can be used as an introduction to and/or a review of events and trends in Hawai'i's history. They provide background to an understanding of contemporary events and issues in our state and show changes that have taken place over time. They can be used to spark discussion on patterns and relationships in events, possible causes of certain changes, why a certain event took place at a particular time, and what changes might occur in the future. Numerous activities are suggested for use with the outlines.

Please note that diacritical marks appear on Hawaiian words except when the text was reproduced directly from the source.

We invite your comments and suggestions on the *Databook and Atlas*.

Land Use

"Activities for the Outline, 'The Modern History of Land Use in Hawai'i'"

Activity 5: What Came First?

9 a. (1961)

1 b. (1795)

3 c. (1848)

4 d. (1861-1865)

6 e. (1906)

10 f. (1978)

2 g. (1835)

7 h. (1920)

8 i. (1959)

5 j. (1887)

Activity 6: True or False

F a. (Sugar was first grown by a Chinese immigrant on Kaua'i in 1802, and later John Wilkinson set up an experimental plantation in Mānoa Valley in 1825. By the 1860s sugar was a major export crop.)

T b.

T c.

F d. (Many western legal innovations relating to land were adopted before the Māhele, which was in 1848. See 1825, 1835, 1836, 1839, 1841, and 1846.)

F e. (At various times during the nineteenth century Hawai'i exported beef hides, cotton, wool, potatoes, rice, sugar, coffee and *pulu*.)

F f. (The King's lands were also divided.)

T g.

F h. (The Hawaiian Homes Commission Act of 1920 had nothing to do with the Bishop Estate which was established in 1884.)

F i. (Kamehameha I died in 1819. The ditch was built in 1878.)

T j.

F k. (Most of the men were connected to sugar, and it was problems with the sugar industry which created pressure for the overthrow.)

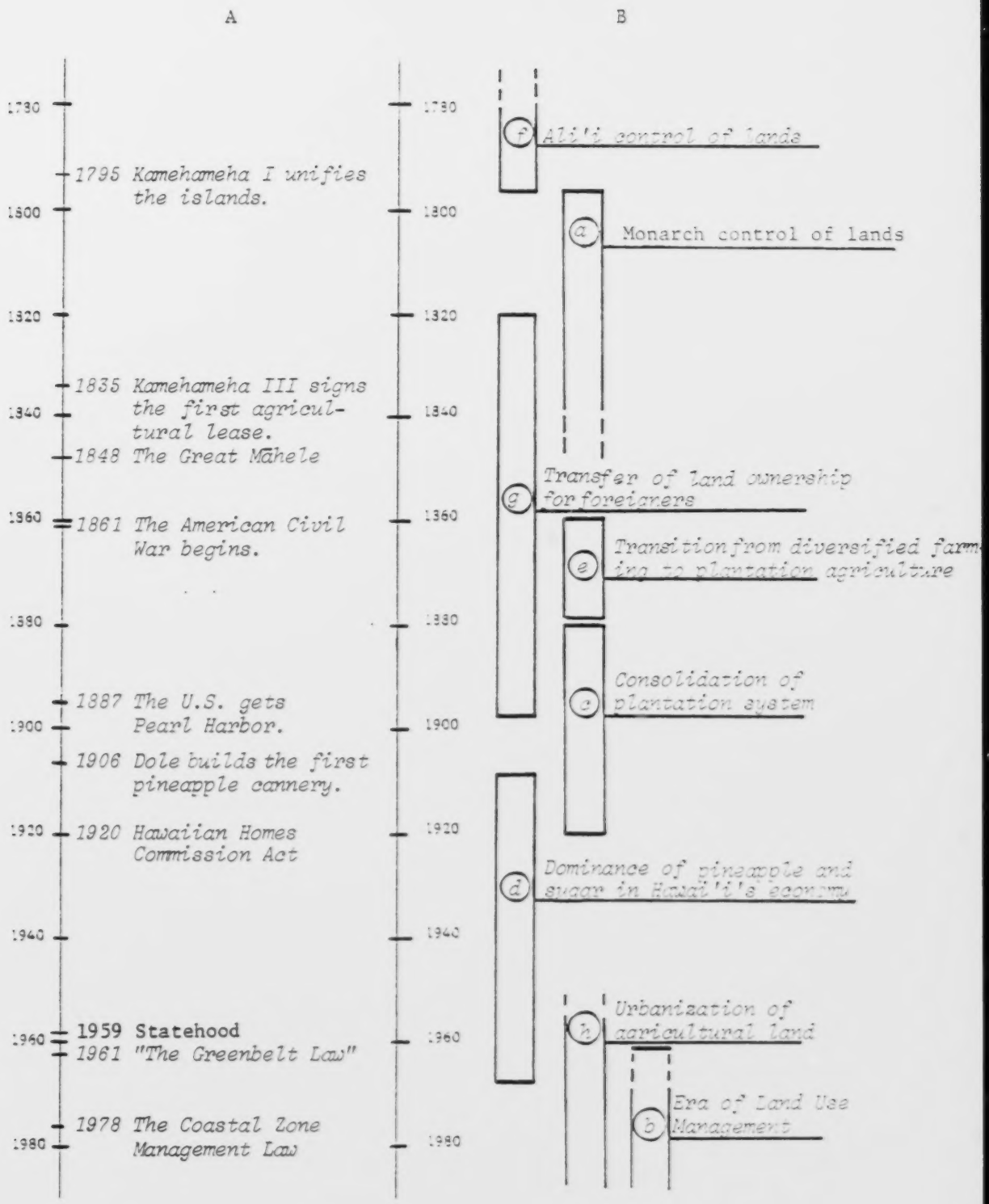
T l.

F m. (The "Pittsburgh Law" of 1961 dealt with taxes on land. The Maryland Law of 1967 dealt with leasehold conversion.)

T n.

T o.

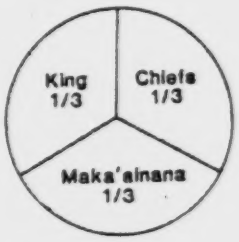
Activity 8: Land Use Time Line

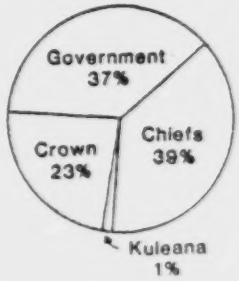


"The Māhele"

1. Below are two graphs, one showing how the land was to be divided--according to the early statement of principles of the Board of Commissioners--and the other the actual results of the Great Māhele. Which is which?

early statement of principles





actual results of the Māhele

2. Why do you think the *maka'āinana* ended up with the amount of land that they did?

The maka'āinana was left with only 1 percent of the land, perhaps because the chiefs and the king wanted land for themselves and discouraged the claiming of the land by the maka'āinana; the early law was too loose to force the chiefs and king to divide the land with the maka'āinana; the Kuleana Act prevented the maka'āinana from claiming land on which they grew crops for market and land which was in dispute between chiefs and commoners; the maka'āinana's ignorance of the need to pursue claims to the land.

3. What is the point of view of the author of this reading?

The author feels that the maka'āinana was unfairly treated in the great land division, that the king, the chiefs, and even the foreigners got their share of the land at the expense of the commoners.

"The Crown Lands, after the Great Māhele"

1. Why do you think purpose #2 of Section 5(f) was included in the Hawai'i State Admissions Act?

Congress probably recognized that the rights of the native Hawaiians had been ignored and neglected during and after the Great Māhele, and during the time of the Provisional Government and the Republic of Hawai'i.

2. What is the irony involved concerning the Crown Lands? To help you answer this question, read the selection, "The Māhele," found in this book.

The irony of the situation is that the original idea of creating the Crown Lands was so that the private lands of the monarchy would not be confiscated should the Hawaiian Kingdom be taken over by foreigners. In reality, however, the Crown Lands were taken over when Queen Lili'uokalani was overthrown.

"Land Ownership: 1982"

1. What kinds of land does the federal government own? Do you recognize the specific areas?

The federal government owns primarily military and park lands. Some easily recognizable lands are the Volcanoes National Park on the Big Island; military lands on O'ahu; Haleakalā National Park on Maui; all of Kaho'olawe used for bombing practice by the military.

2. Which islands have Hawaiian Home Lands?

All the islands except Ni'ihau, Lāna'i, and Kaho'olawe have Hawaiian Home Lands.

3. What islands are largely privately owned?

Lāna'i; Ni'ihau; about 60 percent of Moloka'i; about 50 percent of Kaua'i; about 40 percent of Maui, Hawai'i, and O'ahu.

"Military Land Use in Hawai'i"

1. How many acres used by the military are owned by the federal government? Are held as ceded land? Are leased?

24,600 acres are owned; 143,700 acres are ceded lands; 116,700 acres are leased.

2. What percentage of the total land used by the military is owned by the federal government? Is held as ceded land? Is leased?

8.3 percent is owned; 80.4 percent is ceded land; 11.3 percent is leased.

3. What branch of the military uses the most land?

The army uses the most land in Hawai'i.

"Attitudes Toward the Land"

1. Land is just like any other kind of property. The landowner has the right to use it however he or she wishes, and the right to sell it for the highest price.

Choice number 1 reflects a capitalistic view of land as a commodity. It tends not to recognize the relationship of a piece of land to a larger natural environment. It also tends not to recognize the relationship of human activity on one piece of land to the welfare and life styles of people nearby. This view would probably have been held by most westerners in Hawai'i during the nineteenth and most of the twentieth centuries. Today, this view is most associated with land developers.

2. Land is a special kind of property because ownership and use of land can affect others. The community can place certain restrictions on the use of land, but the owner has the right to sell it for the highest price.

Choice number 2 reflects the system we have in Hawai'i today. The rights of private owners are respected, but they are limited. There is an increasing recognition of the interrelationship of people and resources.

3. Land is a resource belonging to all the people. The community has the right to control all aspects of its use and sale. The community has the right to take land for public purposes.

Choice number 3 is a more communal or socialistic view. It tends not to recognize the right to own private property. It tends to place more and more power in the hands of government, which in turn acts on behalf of the whole community. This view is held by many involved in the environmental movement. It is also similar to views held by the Hawaiians before the adoption of western land laws in the nineteenth century.

"Land Use Conflicts"

Suggested Answers

1. **sugar plantations:** *c. large single-family housing developments*

Both plantation agriculture and housing developments require large amounts of flat land. In Hawai'i today, especially on O'ahu, the future of sugar and pine are threatened by the increased profits a landowner can gain by subdividing his agricultural land for housing. Also, these two land uses come into conflict over the need for plenty of fresh water on a daily basis. When the water table is low in the hot months, there may not be enough water for both agriculture and a significantly larger population.

2. **tourist hotels:** *b. local recreation facilities*

Many hotels are built along or near the shoreline, especially beaches. Beaches are a major source of recreation for local residents. One of the continuing conflicts is over WHO will use a beach for recreation. Local residents have complained that even if public access is provided to a hotel area, they no longer feel comfortable or welcome. The beaches are crowded, and an important feature of their life style has been taken away.

3. **residential neighborhoods:** *d. an airport*

Airport noise is a significant problem both on the U.S. mainland and in Hawai'i. High noise levels have been known to adversely affect health, not to mention create a constant irritant. In Hawai'i, the placement of a new general aviation airport for small planes has created a conflict with residential neighborhoods who do not want planes flying over their neighborhood.

4. **sparsely populated areas:** *a. major new highways*

Perhaps the most celebrated conflict over highways in Hawai'i has been over H-3, a proposed road connecting the Leeward and Windward sides of O'ahu. A major complaint by opponents is the expected rise in land prices and growth in development and population along the route of H-3, which would greatly change the character of the still rural windward O'ahu coast. Highways often stimulate growth and attract traffic rather than merely facilitating better travel by car.

"Land Use Control"

Suggested Answers

These are not the CORRECT answers, since we are asking students to make their own determinations.

There are some basic guidelines, however, which may be useful in discussing their choices. One such set of guidelines is how such issues are controlled in Hawai'i today. For example:

a. *Midway Island is now controlled by the federal government as a military installation. In conflict is the state, which would like to promote its fishing industry near Midway by developing a support facility there for fishermen, including a refueling station.*

There are no neighborhood groups, private landowners, or county governments involved.

b. *Beach parks, especially large ones, are generally handled by either the state or county. Occasionally, the federal government allows use of its beach lands, such as Bellows Beach on O'ahu. Most of the debate today is between state and county management of these parks. The state, because it manages conservation districts and watershed areas, tends to promote passive recreational parks, while the counties tend to be more oriented towards active parks with baseball diamonds, swimming pools, and tennis courts.*

c. *Street widening is now mostly a county function. But the widening of a particular street can greatly affect a particular neighborhood. It can bring in more traffic and congestion; it can destroy old shade trees; it can make walking as a pedestrian less pleasant; and it can destroy a sense of intimacy. Many neighborhood groups would like to have more influence if not actual control over decisions to widen local streets. On the other hand, a major road passes through several neighborhoods, and only a larger agency can reconcile different needs.*

d. *Building heights are controlled by the county, but many neighborhood organizations would like more say in controlling such developments.*

e. *Property taxes are now controlled by counties, but the state once used such taxes to protect agriculture and to ensure that one county did not over- or undertax compared to the others. It is a technical issue in many respects.*

f. *Airports are regulated in part by the federal government, which is responsible for safety.*

g. *Air Force bases are controlled by the federal government, but where they go is often influenced by the desires of state governments..*

h. *New highways are expensive, and control often comes from where the money originates, from the federal government. The impacts of new highways can be tremendous, both in stimulating an economy and in destroying nature.*

i. *Power plants are usually regulated by the states and counties. The siting of power plants is usually a state and county decision.*

"The 'Greenbelt Law' of 1961"

1. Skim over "Chapter 205, Land Use Commission." This is taken from the Hawai'i Revised Statutes.

2. Under Section 205-2, what are the four land use districts?

   urban, rural, agricultural, conservation

3. Under Section 205-2 (1), can you give some recent examples of urban growth?

   housing developments, tourist developments, commercial developments, airports, etc.

4. Under Section 205-2 (3), what do you think is meant by "high capacity for intensive cultivation"? Can you give some examples?

   the best lands, i.e., land with good soil, adequate rainfall and/or sources of fresh running water, flat lands, etc.

5. Under Section 205-2 (4), why do you think forest and water reserve zones are included in conservation districts? Why might this be especially important for an island state?

   When water falls on a forested mountain, the water is retained in the soil and slowly seeps down to replenish the water table. If the mountain is barren or covered with roads and houses, the water runs off quickly into gutters and streams. The water table is not replenished. Our island state depends heavily on the fresh water trapped in the underground water table. We have no other source of fresh water, except for fresh streams fed by rainfall. If we do not protect our water reserve zones and forests, we could face a serious water shortage.

6. Read the rest of Section 205-2, which provides a general description of each land use district. Then match the various land uses with the appropriate districts below:

1. *ideally b, but also could be a*
2. *a*
3. *c*
4. *ideally c, possibly d*
5. *a or c*
6. *c, sometimes a, however*
7. *a*
8. *ideally d*
9. *d*
10. *d*

"Coastal Zone Management"

1. Give two examples of each of the following:

   a. **recreational resources:** *a surfing area; a hiking area; a beach; a boat harbor; a reef; a calm swimming area*

   b. **historic resources:** *petroglyphs; a heiau; burial caves; historic buildings; monuments*

   c. **scenic and open space resources:** *the view of the ocean; the view of the mountains; a picturesque beach; an undeveloped plot of land; a rural environment; a view corridor through buildings*

   d. **coastal ecosystems:** *a tide pool; a reef system; a marsh; a beach; an ocean outlet of a stream; various marine plants and animals inhabiting such areas*

   e. **economic uses:** *a hotel; condominiums; discharge of wastes; dumping; commercial fishing; a pier; a boat harbor; a commercial harbor*

   f. **coastal hazards:** *flooding; tsunami inundation zones; erosion; high surf; dangerous currents*

   g. **managing development:** *analysis of impacts before they happen; prohibition of certain activities in certain areas; designating areas best suited for development; controlling impacts of development; permit systems; public hearings; streamlining permit systems; monitoring impacts; warning developers of hazards; providing public access*

2. Which of these areas do you feel are most important for government to worry about? Why do you feel this way?

This is a purely subjective exercise. Students express their personal values and attempt to rationalize or defend their preferences.

3. Read through the Coastal Zone Law. Are there any words you do not understand? Make a list of any words or terms which are not clear to you.

Some unclear terms may be management; restore; adverse impacts; monetary compensation; feasible; point and non-point sources of pollution; salvage operations; processing of applications.

4. Look at the policies under the recreational objective:

"Provide adequate, accessible and diverse recreational opportunities in the coastal zone management area . . ."

Can you think of an example to illustrate each policy?

Policy (i): *an important beach, a beautiful view, a historic site*
(ii): *surfing sites, sandy beaches, piers, harbors, etc.*
(iii): *forcing landowners to provide a pathway to the beach*
(iv): *providing parks, buying land along the shoreline to build a park: Sand Island Park, Magic Island, Ala Moana Park*
(v): *spending public funds to turn unused public shoreline lands into parks*
(vi): *cleaning up pollution which comes from a particular spot (point) as well as general pollution like erosion and runoff into a bay*
(vii): *coastal engineering*
(viii): *forcing a developer to set aside some of his/her land for a park in order to get government permission to build on other land*

5. In the recreational objective, the lawmakers used the words "adequate," "accessible," and "diverse." Why do you think they included all three words? In terms of recreation, what do you think each word means?

Adequate *is there because a recreational resource may be too small or somehow unable to meet the need. A tiny park might be inadequate for a community wanting to use parks extensively.*

Accessible *is there because while there might be a beautiful beach, if it is difficult to get to, i.e., no pathway or no parking, then that resource is, in effect, inaccessible.*

Diverse *refers to a whole variety of different kinds of coastal recreation, from surfing to swimming, to diving, to boating, to fishing etc. This term is used to ensure that no one group is favored to the detriment of other recreational groups.*

6. Which of the policies for recreation do you think would definitely require spending public money?

In a general sense, they all might cost some money, if only the cost of paying public employees.

More specifically, those policies which are most likely to be costly are ii: because it requires some engineering or construction to replace resources.

iii: If a path to the beach is owned by the public, then a public agency may have to spend money to keep the path clean and safe. If someone is injured on the path, the government might be sued for damages.

iv: This might involve purchasing shoreline lands.

v: This would involve spending public funds to improve unused sites.

vi: Artificial recreational resources can be costly.

7. Look at the section under "Managing Development." Give a specific example of each of the three policies. Why do you think lawmakers included these policies? What problems do they imply?

Managing development: A: This means enforcing the law, which means hiring people to enforce the law. It also means prosecuting violators.

A: The problem with enforcement is the interest and ability of a public agency to enforce all of its rules and regulations.

B: Developers are always complaining about how much red tape and time is required to get permits. This refers to efforts to streamline the process without watering down the requirements and standards.

C: This basically refers to the problems of informing the public and the public's desire to participate knowledgeably in decision making which affects coastal resources. Public notices in papers, availability of important documents, opportunity to testify in public hearings, and the right to go to court to enforce the law are all aspects of public participation.

"Land Use Permits"

1. How many <u>different</u> permits are involved in all three areas?

There is a total of 16 different permits listed. Some overlap.

2. Why do you think the different areas have different sets of requirements?

Different areas have different sets of requirements because of needs and sensitivities of ecosystems found in those areas and because of the other kinds of human activities found in those areas.

3. Which area (A. Inland of the SMA, B. The SMA, C. Seaward of the Shoreline) seems to be the most heavily regulated?

The most heavily regulated area is area B, the Special Management Area, which covers the shoreline. The shoreline is the most sensitive of all three areas and is the area where many human activities take place. Conflicts between humans and conflicts between human activity and the needs of the ecosystem are common in the SMA.

4. Which area seems to be the least regulated?

The least regulated, in terms of the number of permits required, is the area seaward of the shoreline. But this is slightly deceptive because the regulations are very strict in the ocean. Just because there are fewer permits does not mean it is easier to get permission to conduct activities in the ocean.

5. Based on the list of permits, what specific resources can you identify which the various governmental agencies want to protect and control?

Agencies attempt to protect historical resources, the shoreline, freshwater streams, the freshwater table, coastal waters, soil (in danger from erosion), endangered species, and critical wildlife habitats.

6. If you owned urban-zoned land in area A. (Inland of the SMA), and you wanted to build a house with its own well, what permits would be required?

Minimum requirements would include a well permit, a county building permit, and various county zoning and use permits.
You <u>probably</u> would also be required to get a county grading permit.
You might, depending on your location, be required to get a floodplain management review, and a historic site review.

7. What permits would be required if you wanted to construct an aquaculture pond in a conservation district in Area A using water from a stream, and you intended to discharge some wastewater back into the stream? Assume that you have received a federal grant to assist in the project.

Minimum requirements would include a federal EIS because you are receiving federal funds, an NPDES permit to discharge wastewater into freshwater, a Hawai'i EIS because it is in a conservation district, and a Conservation District Use permit.

Other permits, depending on location and circumstance, would include a U.S. Department of the Army permit if you intend to build a structure out into the stream, a flood plain management review if you are in a flood plain, and possibly a historic site review.

8. What permits would be required if you wanted to build an aquaculture pond next to a historic site in the Special Management Area?

You would need a federal EIS, a Hawai'i EIS; a historic site review, a Special Management Area permit, a shoreline setback variance, and possibly a county grading permit and other county use permits.

9. What permits would be required if you wanted to build a pier extending into the water?

U.S. Army Corps of Engineers permit, floodplain management review, State EIS, Permit to Work in the Shorewaters of the State, a Conservation District Use permit.

10. What do you think the attitude of the aquaculture developer might be regarding the requirements?

Many aquaculture developers regard the regulatory system as too complex and too restrictive. It is also expensive and can take a long time to actually receive all the necessary permits.

Resource managers and conservationists, on the other hand, note that many of the regulations are loosely interpreted and are ineffective in protecting the environment from damage. While the system is complex, they argue that such a system is necessary to prevent unacceptable damage to ecological systems.

Population and Ethnic Diversity

"Activities for the Outline, 'The Modern Social History of Hawai'i'"

Activity 3: Who Came First?

2	a.	(1820s)	5	f.	(1868)
3	b.	(1830s)	1	g.	(1790s)
4	c.	(1850s)	9	h.	(1949)
7	d.	(1906)	8	i.	(1920s)
6	e.	(1880s)	10	j.	(1970s)

Activity 4: What Came First?

4	a.	(1870s)	3	f.	(1820)
2	b.	(1819)	1	g.	(1790s)
6	c.	(1906)	8	h.	(1931)
7	d.	(1921-1926)	10	i.	(1976)
9	e.	(1950s)	5	j.	(1900)

Activity 5: True or False

F a. (The *kapu* system was abolished before the missionaries arrived.)

T b.

F c. (Many Hawaiian women took prominent roles in Hawaiian government, including Ka'ahumanu, Queen Emma, and Lili'uokalani.)

F d. (The first schools were started by missionaries.)

F e. (Hawaiians attended the first schools in large numbers.)

T f.

F g. (Father Damien did not arrive in Hawai'i until the 1870s.)

T h.

F i. (Communism did not become an issue until the late 1940s and early 1950s. The first communist revolution, in Russia, did not occur until 1917.)

T j.

T k.

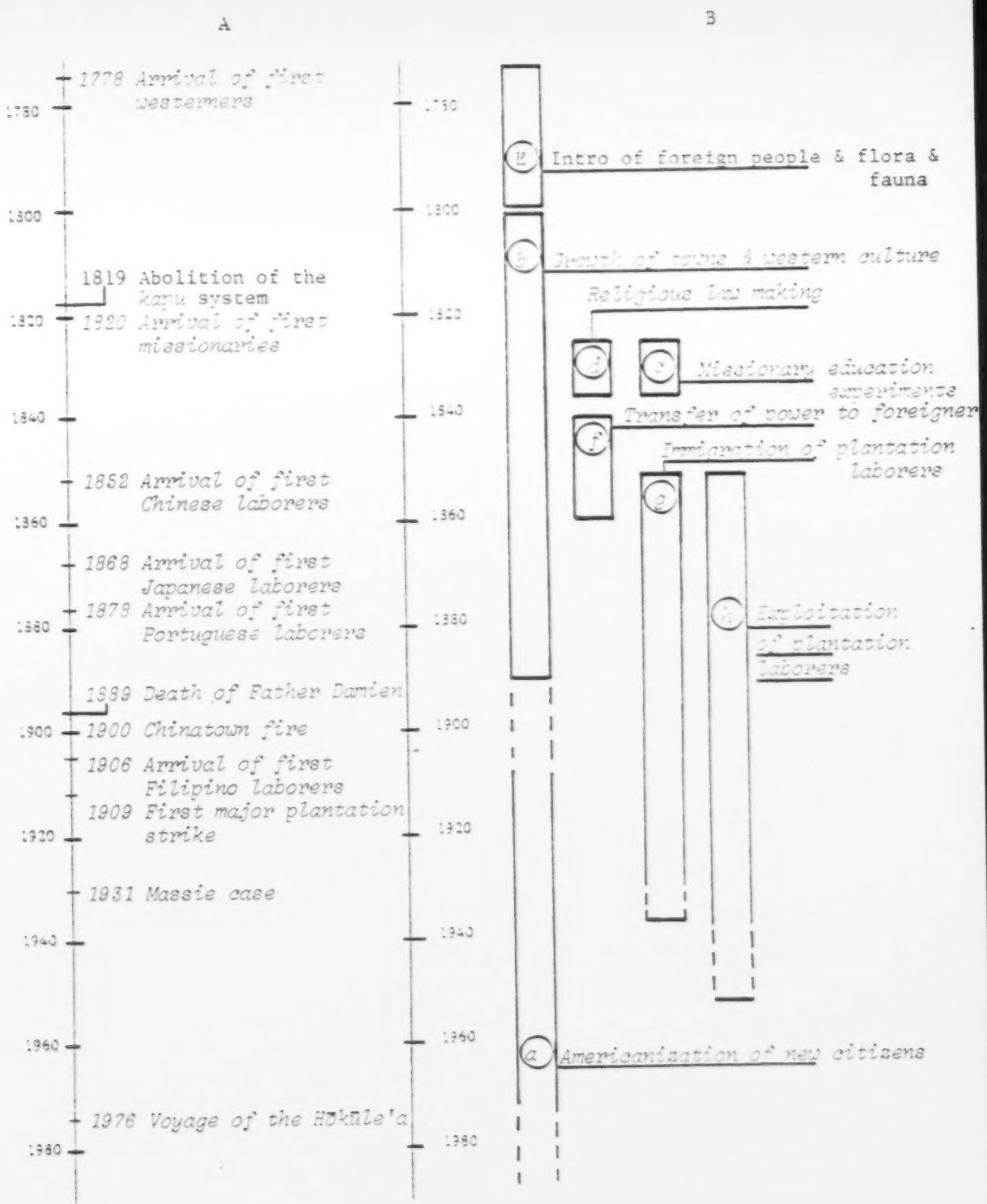
F l. (*The Hawaii Observer* was an investigative news magazine in the 1970s. It did not exist at the time of statehood, 1959.)

F m. (There was a significant citizen participation movement.)

F n. (The *Hōkūle'a* sailed to Tahiti.)

F o. (The Hawaiian Renaissance refers to a renewed interest in Hawaiian culture.)

Activity 7: Social History Time Line



"Looking at Population Statistics"

1. What kinds of information do they give you?

"Population By Islands." This table shows how much each island decreased and/or increased in population; it allows for a comparison in population growth among the eight islands.

"Resident Population: Military and Civilian, 1900-1981." This table shows the influence of World War II on population growth in the islands; it shows the relative size of the armed forces as compared to the rest of Hawai'i's population; it shows the general increase in population over an 80-year period.

2. What differences can you find between the two?

If you look at the years 1900, 1910, 1920, and every ten years after that, you will see that the numbers given for the total population for the islands differ between the two tables.

3. How do you account for these differences?

The various studies were done by different agencies, who may have used slightly different methods and different sample groups from which to base their totals. The data from the table, "Population By Islands," are from information gathered by the U.S. Bureau of the Census. The data from the table, "Resident Population: Military and Civilian, 1900-1981," are from information gathered by the State Department of Planning and Economic Development. Thus the exact numbers differ, although the overall totals do not greatly differ. We should look at these numbers as "best estimates."

4. What differences can you find between them?

The categories listed in the 1977 study distinguish between people of "unmixed" and "mixed" ethnic stock, whereas the 1980 study does not; the 1977 study separates the "pure" Hawaiian from the part-Hawaiian, whereas the 1980 study does not; from the 1977 study we know that there were about 25.7 percent of the population of mixed ethnic heritage, whereas the 1980 study gives us no comparable information.

5. How do these differences affect the way one might look at the numbers and percentages?

The results of the two tables cannot be compared. For example, in 1977 there were 4.6 percent Chinese. The 6.2 percent Chinese in the 1980 table may be the result of an increase in Chinese, or it may be the result of adding people of mixed ancestry (and who are part-Chinese) to the Chinese category.

For those interested, the 1980 survey does not tell us how many "pure" Hawaiians there are, since they are lumped together with part-Hawaiians. The 1980 survey also does not take into account the large number of people living in Hawai'i who are of mixed ancestry.

6. Which survey do you think more accurately depicts the population of Hawai'i? Why?

"Population by Ethnicity: 1778-1884"

1. Only one ethnic group has decreased in population from 1778 to 1960. Which group is it?

   Hawaiians

2. From 1970 to 1980, "others" have increased by 30,437, making it the third-fastest growing group in the state for that decade. Who do you think is included in this group?

   "Others" include those of mixed blood who do not identify with any one particular ethnic group or who are not on the Census Bureau's list of ethnic groups. (Read the article, "Listen, baby--You're really mixed up.")

   "Others" also include those who are unsure of their ethnicity.

3. According to the 1980 census, what are the five largest ethnic groups in Hawai'i? List them from largest to smallest.

   Caucasians, Japanese, Filipinos, Hawaiians and part-Hawaiians, Chinese

---

"Resident Population: Military and Civilian, 1900-1981"

1. Looking at the table above, what can you say about the changes in the military population and in the total resident population? First skim the figures to get an overall picture, then use a calculator for a more precise response.

   Previous to 1941, the total resident population had been increasing at a rate of less than 10,000 per year, and only occasionally between 10,000-20,000. From 1941-1944, there were huge increases in both the military population and the total resident population.

   Then from 1945-1949, both the military population and the total resident population decreased, first rapidly, then more slowly.

During 1950-1955, there was a period of fluctuation, with the population both increasing and decreasing.

Since 1955, there has been a continual increase in total resident population, while the military population has remained close to 60,000.

Some of the changes are shown below:

Year	*Change in Total Resident Population*	*Change in Armed Forces*
1942	*+122,691*	*+87,720*
1943	*+67,624*	*+63,925*
1944	*+209,295*	*+206,379*
1945	*-44,344*	*-52,077*
1946	*-269,162*	*-289,003*

2. How do you account for these changes?

America's entry into World War II brought a sharp increase in military personnel to Hawai'i. Most of the increase in the total resident population during the years 1942-1944 can be attributed to this influx. Thus with the withdrawal of troops after the war, there was a corresponding reduction, from 1945-1949, in the total resident population.

While the changes in Hawai'i's total population during and just after the war can be attributed to changes in the armed forces in Hawai'i, the same cannot be said for the years after 1955, for while the number of military personnel has remained fairly stable, the total resident population has continued to increase.

Other factors must be considered in bringing more residents to Hawai'i: the coming of the jet age, which made Hawai'i a more attractive place to live; the growth of tourism in attracting residents to Hawai'i; and statehood (1959).

Other factors which have influenced population growth before 1940 and after 1955 include U.S. citizens on the mainland seeing Hawai'i as a desirable place in which to live; birth rate--in Hawai'i a relatively large portion of the population are at the childbearing age, so there is a natural increase in population; immigrants--most immigrants are young, so there is a greater number of births than deaths in this group.

"Resident Population: Military and Civilian, 1950-1980"

	1950	1960	1970	1980
1. How many people did the military add to Hawai'i in the years indicated?	*67,729*	*112,938*	*111,000*	*122,000*

2. What percentage of the total resident population are the figures given in question #1? *13.6%* *17.6%* *14.3%* *12.6%*

3. Looking at the figures in the chart above and in this activity, what observations can you make?

   Possible responses:

   a. *Of the four years shown, military personnel and their dependents increased most between 1950-1960.*

   b. *Although the number of military personnel and their dependents have increased from 1970-1980, their percentage of the total resident population has decreased.*

   c. *In the past 30 years the proportion of military personnel and their dependents to the total resident population has remained fairly stable.*

4. Do you think members of the armed forces and their dependents make up a small or large percentage of the state population?

"Population by Islands"

1. Comparing 1831-1832 and 1980 figures, the greatest population <u>increase</u> occurred on which island? *O'ahu* Comparing the same years, which islands show a <u>decrease</u> in population? *Kaho'olawe and Ni'ihau*

2. On which island did the population remain relatively unchanged in the years 1831-1832 and 1980? *Moloka'i*

"Land of Our Fathers"

1. Between 1970 and 1980, the greatest number of immigrants to the United States came from what two areas?

   Asia and the Pacific Islands

2. What is the most common language, other than English, spoken in America today?

   Spanish

3. What are some of the difficulties mentioned in the article of collecting data on immigrants, ethnic makeup, and migration?

4. Can you think of other difficulties census takers in Hawai'i and on the mainland might have in collecting data?

   One answer might be inaccessibility. For example, some people live in remote areas such as Kalalau Valley on Kaua'i and Pelekunu Valley on Moloka'i.

   The uncooperativeness of some respondents is another difficulty census takers face in getting accurate information. These respondents may be running from the law or in the country illegally, or they may feel it is an invasion of their privacy. Also, what might be considered uncooperativeness by some census takers may just be a misunderstanding of what the census is all about by the more recently-arrived immigrants.

"Chronology and Composition of Labor Immigration: 1852-1946"

1. Which ethnic groups tended to immigrate as families? On what do you base your answer?

   Portuguese and Spanish. A high percentage of women and children immigrated along with the men.

2. Why do you think "U.S. Negroes" were recruited primarily from the southern states?

   Probably because they were accustomed to agricultural work, warm climate, and a rural life style.

3. Why do you think workers were recruited from many different countries rather than one or two?

   Because the plantation owners felt it would be easier to control many ethnic groups, smaller in numbers, rather than one large group of the same ethnicity--the "divide-and-conquer" rule.

"Immigrants Admitted to Hawai'i by Country of Birth"

Where did the majority of immigrants come from between 1852 and 1884? Between 1885 and 1924? Between 1960 and 1979?

China and Taiwan, Japan and Ryukyu Islands, Philippines

"National Immigration Policies"

1. How do you think the Quota Laws of 1921, 1924, and 1929 affected immigration to the U.S.?

   It restricted the number of immigrants to the U.S. from areas other than northwestern Europe, since the quotas were based on the number of foreign-born people of those countries already living in the U.S. This was later changed to national origin.

2. How do you think the immigration laws of 1965 and 1978 affected immigration to the U.S.?

   More people from the Eastern Hemisphere and from countries other than northwestern Europe were able to immigrate to the U.S.

3. Look at the chart, "Immigrants Admitted to Hawai'i by Country of Birth." Do you see any relationship between the numbers of immigrants coming to Hawai'i and the U.S. immigration laws?

   The Quota Laws of 1921, 1924, and 1929 did not affect the number of Filipinos entering Hawai'i, though it seems to have affected immigrants from China and Japan.

   Students might be interested in knowing some background information on the relationship of the Philippines to the U.S.

   In 1898, as a result of the Spanish-American war, the Philippines was annexed to the U.S. In 1934 Congress passed a law which prepared the way for future independence of the Philippines. The archipelago became a commonwealth of the United States from 1935-1946, when it finally became independent. During its status as a territory and then a commonwealth, the Philippines was not considered a foreign country and so did not come under the quota laws.

   Since figures are not available from 1935-1959, we do not know how many people came to Hawai'i from China, Japan, Korea, and the Philippines. Not very many came, however. (See totals for those years.)

   The liberalization of the immigration law in 1965 seems to have resulted in an increase of immigrants from China, Japan, Korea, and the Philippines compared to the years 1934-1964, which saw few immigrants to Hawai'i.

Government and Politics

"Activities for the Outline, 'The Modern History of Government and Politics in Hawai'i'"

Activity 3: Who Came First?

4	a.	3	f.
9	b.	2	g.
7	c.	10	h.
8	d.	6	i.
1	e.	5	j.

Activity 4: What Came First?

5	a.	10	f.
7	b.	8	g.
4	c.	1	h.
3	d.	9	i.
2	e.	6	j.

Activity 5: True or False

F a. (Several foreigners became advisors to the King and chiefs in the 1790s.)

T b.

T c.

F d. (The first consitution, in 1840, recognized the rights of commoners to share in the benefits of the land.)

F e. (The Great Māhele divided lands according to western practices.)

T f.

T g.

F h. (The first president was Sanford B. Dole. Bingham was a missionary from 1820 to 1840.)

T i.

T j.

F k. (Statehood was promoted from the early part of the twentieth century.)

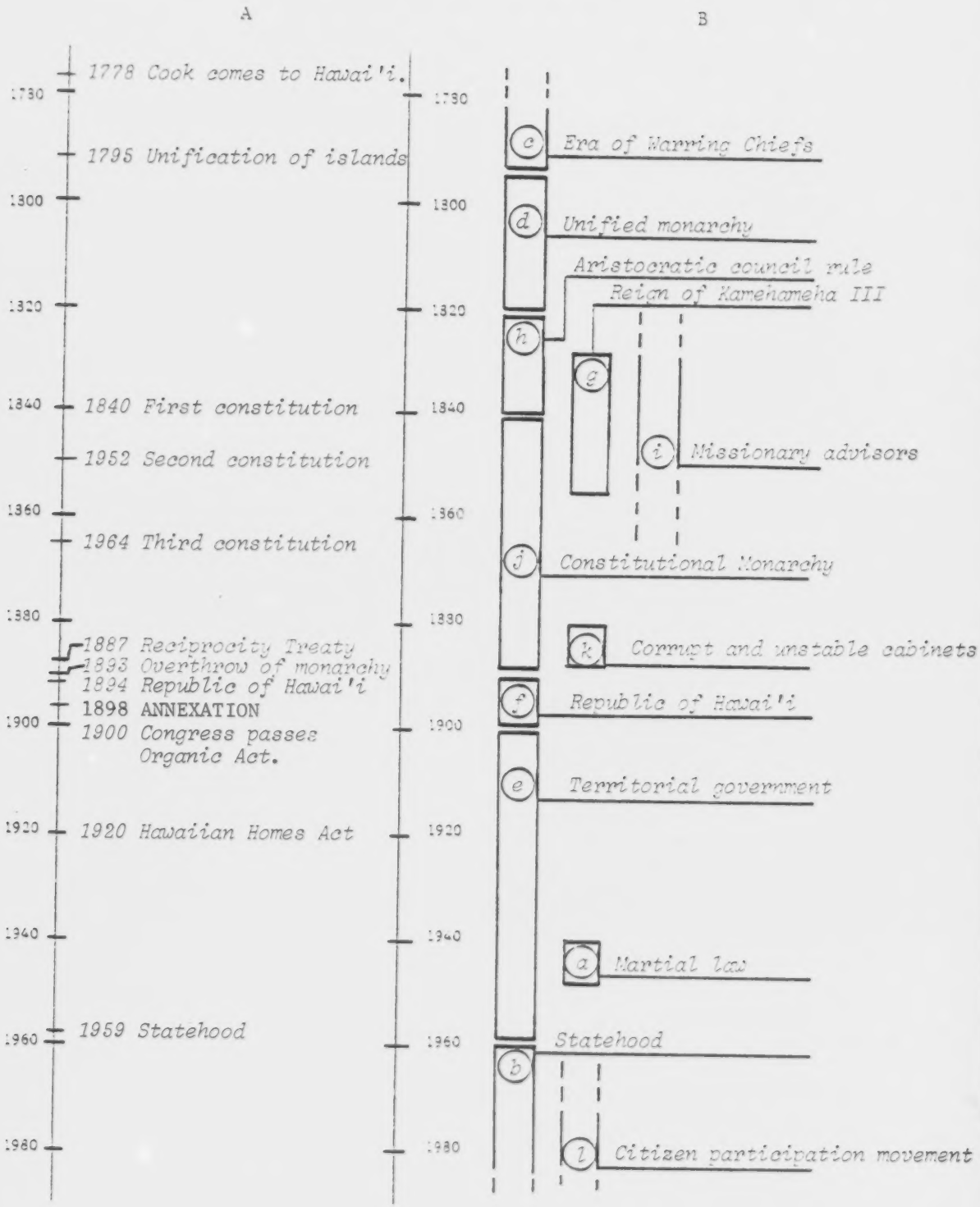
F l. (Burns was defeated in his first race for governor by William Quinn.)

T m.

F n. (Dan Inouye, a U.S. Senator, has never been governor of Hawai'i.)

T o.

Activity 7: Government and Politics Time Line



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"Types of Government"

Absolute Monarchy (1795-1824)

Kamehameha I

Kamehameha II

Constitutional Monarchy (1825-1893)

Kamehameha III
Kamehameha IV
Lunalilo V
Kalākaua
Lili'uokalani

Provisional Government (1893-1894)

Sanford B. Dole

Republic (1894-1900)

Sanford B. Dole

Territory (1900-1959)

Sanford B. Dole
to
William F. Quinn

State (1959-present)

William F. Quinn
to
George R. Ariyoshi

"The Office of Hawaiian Affairs"

Before having students read "The Office of Hawaiian Affairs," ask them if they have heard of OHA, and if so, what they know about it.

OHA Created

1. What is a constitutional amendment? (What is a constitution? What is an amendment?)

A constitution is a written document which sets out the fundamental law of a nation or state. It organizes government, assigns and limits political power, and defines the rights of the people.

To amend is to change. A constitutional amendment is a change made to a constitution. An amendment to the U.S. Constitution requires passage by a two-thirds vote of both houses of Congress. It must then be ratified by at least three-fourths of the State Legislatures.

An amendment to the Hawai'i Constitution requires passage by a two-thirds vote of both houses of the State Legislature. It must then be ratified by the voters.

2. There are two types of laws: constitutional law and statutory law. What is the difference between them?

Constitutional law is the fundamental framework of a state or nation. It is considered superior to statutory law. It is more difficult to change the constitution than to change statutes.

Statutes are laws that are passed by the State Legislature (state) or by Congress (nation). They can be amended or repealed by the same bodies.

In some states the citizens have "initiative," the right to propose laws (either statutes or constitutional amendments) through a petition process. In Hawai'i all the counties have some form of initiative. The state does not, although there have been numerous attempts to create that process at the state level.

3. According to the *Hawai'i Revised Statutes* (which is a compilation of all statutory laws in Hawai'i), what is the general purpose of OHA?

The general purpose of OHA is to act as the principal public agency responsible for coordinating, developing, and assessing the programs and activities relating to Hawaiians.

4. How does OHA go about reaching its goals?

5. Supporters of OHA say that State monies are rightly being used to run the operations of OHA. Read the selection, "The Crown Lands, after the Great Māhele," to find the basis for this statement.

The Hawai'i State Admissions Act, passed by the U.S. Congress, states that money from the land trust was to be used for five purposes. One of the purposes was to better the conditions of native Hawaiians.

"Should We Limit the Number of Bills?"

1. Based on the following table, what is the average percentage of bills enacted into law from 1969-1980 during regular (not special) sessions?

   8.9 percent

2. Do you think the legislative process is efficient?

   Efficiency is usually used to describe the amount of effort it takes to produce good results. Most students of democracy and political science admit that the democratic process is not efficient. Many argue, however, that efficiency is dangerous, and is more a feature of dictatorships.

3. What reasons can you think of for limiting the number of bills introduced by individual legislators?

   Some reasons given by advocates of limits on bills include:
   a) Most bills die anyway, and are a waste of paper.
   b) Many bills are introduced just to gain the praise of certain constituents or groups, but are not sincerely fought for.
   c) It is difficult for lobbyists and especially citizen groups to keep track of all the bills, and this makes the legislative process less accessible to interested citizens.

4. What reasons can you think of for not limiting the number of bills?

   Some reasons given by opponents of limits on bills include:
   a) If you limit the bills, you limit the ability of a legislator to serve his/her constituents.
   b) If you limit the bills, you limit the ability of certain groups who are not powerful to get their bill introduced. The high priority goes to the powerful.
   c) An educated lobbyist learns quickly which bills to read and pay attention to, and which bills can be ignored. Most of the bills are in the form of short-form capital improvements which are always absorbed into the final budget anyway.

5. What do you think is the relationship between the number of bills introduced and the number of ideas considered?

   One important factor in limiting bills is that you also limit ideas. Since the legislature is supposed to come up with the best possible legislation for the community, it ought to have available to it as many ideas as possible. An experienced legislator may be able to limit his or her bills, but a new legislator, with little power other than the power of persuasion, may feel that the introduction of a bill is the most effective way to bring an issue to the attention of the legislature.

6. What do you think is the relationship between the number of bills introduced and insincere efforts to influence voters?

It is certainly true that many bills are introduced only for the insincere purpose of being able to say to a constituent, "See, I support your cause, I introduced your bill." In reality, many of these bills are left to die. A legislator may simply fail to apply any energy or persuasion to get the bill passed. Or, a legislator may even quietly tell other legislators that the bill is unimportant. It can be argued that a limit on bills might decrease the number of unsupported bills, and further indicate which legislation a representative <u>really</u> wants to pass.

The Economy

"Activities for the Outline, 'The Modern Economic History of Hawai'i'"

Activity 2: Which Came First?

7 a. (1949)

1 b. (1785)

9 c. (1958)

10 d. (1981)

2 e. (1811)

3 f. (1850s)

8 g. (1960-1970)

4 h. (1875)

5 i. (1900)

6 j. (1935)

Activity 3: True or False

F a. (Sandalwood grew in Hawai'i and was exported to China.)

T b.

F c. (Whaling was conducted primarily by westerners who stopped in Hawai'i.)

F d. (At various times during the nineteenth century Hawai'i exported beef hides, cotton, wool, potatoes, rice, sugar, coffee, and pulu.)

F e. (The Masters and Servants Act imposed great restrictions on immigrant laborers.)

T f.

F g. (The Civil War removed southern sugar from the marketplace, causing a higher demand for existing supplies, and thus higher prices. Hawaiian planters thus increased profits.)

T h.

F i. (Kalākaua went to Washington to lobby for the Reciprocity Treaty.)

F j. (While they opposed tariffs on their own sugar, they favored tariffs on sugar grown from their foreign competitors.)

T k.

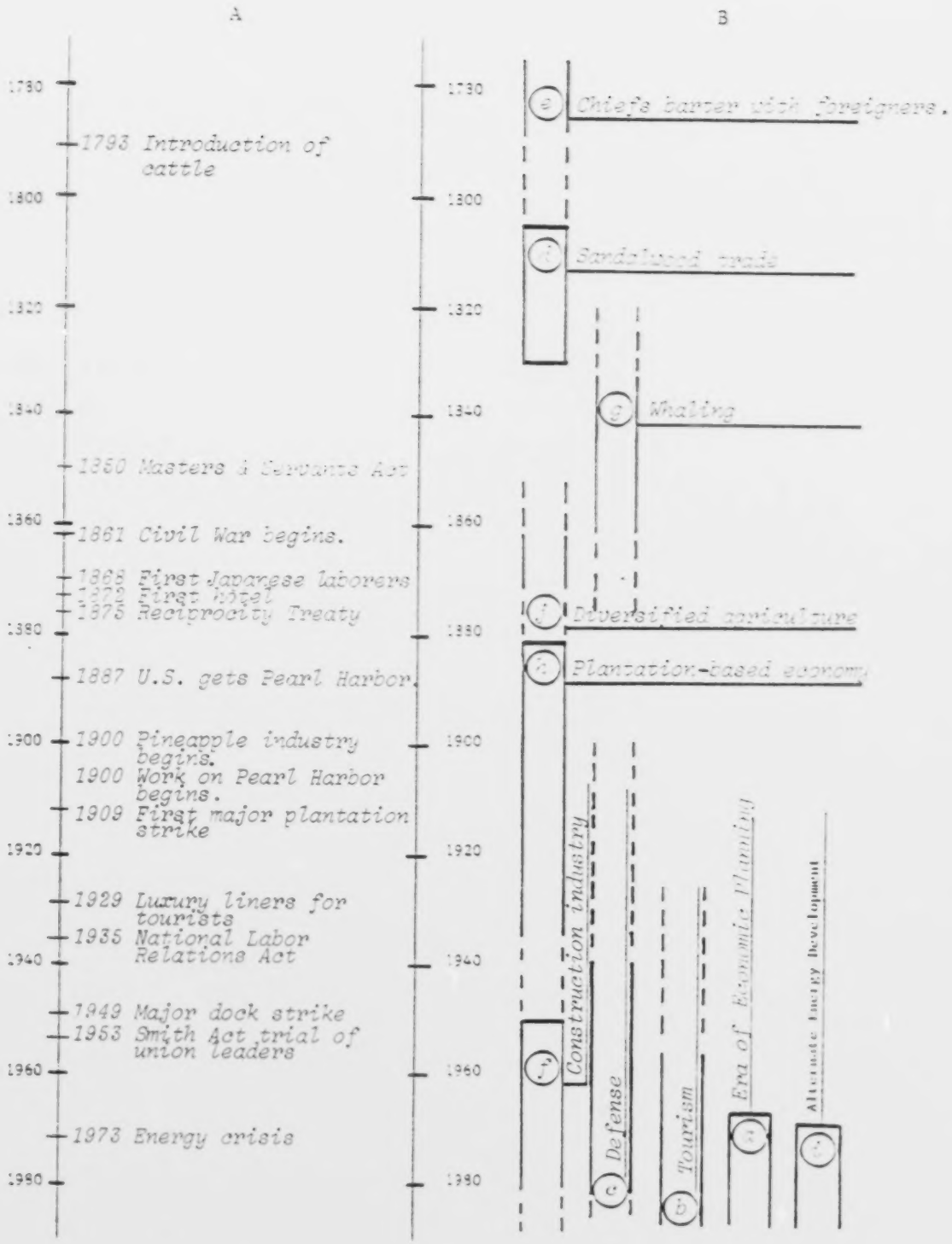
F l. (Filipinos were not brought to Hawai'i until after 1900, as were many more Japanese.)

T m.

T n.

F o. (The leading sources of revenue today are tourism and defense.)

Activity 5: Economics Time Line



"Major Corporations in Hawai'i"

1. Which of the original Big Five Companies are on the 1971 and 1981 lists of Major Corporations in Hawai'i?

   C. Brewer and Co., Ltd., Alexander & Baldwin, Inc., Castle & Cooke, Inc., and H. Hackfeld and Co. which became American Factors (Amfac, Inc. today) are on both lists. Theo. H. Davies & Co., Ltd. is on the 1971 list.

2. Which of the original Big Five were also the top five corporations in 1981?

   American Factors; Castle & Cook, Inc.

3. Comparing the 1971 list with the 1981 list, which corporation has grown tremendously in ten years?

   Pacific Resources, Inc., formerly Honolulu Gas Co., was 13th in the 1971 list, and moved its way up to 4th place in 1981.

4. Which corporation seems to have lost its place as a major corporation?

   Theo. H. Davies & Co., Ltd., one of the original Big Five, is not on the 1981 list. It is presently a subsidiary company of Jardine Matheson, a Hong Kong based company. The 1981 annual report of Jardine Matheson did not give separate revenue figures for Theo. H. Davies, so it was not included in the 1981 list. Were the figures available, Theo. H. Davies would be listed among the major corporations.

"Agriculture--Sugar and Pineapple"

1. Looking at both the sugar and pineapple graphs, how do you account for the overall decrease in production over the past 20 years with the general increase in revenues?

   Although the production of both pineapple and sugar cane has decreased, inflation and cost of production have driven up prices, with resulting higher revenues.

2. Can you explain the sharp increase in revenues in 1974, and again in 1980, in the sugar industry?

   Sugar is heavily influenced by the world sugar markets. In 1974 and in 1980, extremely high world sugar prices made sugar a profitable industry.

3. Why are the pineapple and sugar industries having difficulties today?

The sugar and pineapple industries in Hawai'i have to compete with world markets. Labor costs are lower in other countries. As a result, sugar and pineapple from those countries are cheaper.

In 1974 the 40-year-old U.S. Sugar Act expired, and U.S. sugar producers had to compete directly with producers in other countries.

"Agriculture--Diversified Agriculture"

Before having students turn to the table, "Diversified Agriculture," ask them what comes to their minds when they hear the term mentioned. They should think of all the agricultural products grown in Hawai'i. List the products on the chalkboard as they call them out. Then have students look at the chart, noting the changes in rank among the different products over a ten-year period.

"Diversified Manufacturing in Hawai'i"

1. What type of industry has employed the largest number of people in diversified manufacturing?

   Food processing: this excludes sugar and pineapple.

2. Approximately how many more people were employed in each of the industries in the nine-year span? What is the total for all of the industries combined?

3. Compare the answers in question 2 with population growth between 1971 and 1980. (Where would you find the information giving population growth?) Assuming that at least half of the population increase is made up of people of working age, do you think diversified manufacturing played a significant role in employing these people?

   No.

4. Why do you think diversified manufacturing has not expanded significantly?

   The State has encouraged the growth of these industries, but the results have been meager because of Hawai'i's lack of raw materials; our distance from major markets and resources; the high cost of land. Labor costs have not been a negative factor since sales per worker have increased greatly over the past decade.

"Manufacturing in Hawai'i"

1. What is the difference between "Total Sales in Current $" and "Total Sales in Constant 1967 $?"

   "Total Sales in Constant 1967 $" reflects real growth in sales for the industries. "Total Sales in Current $" reflects the impact of inflation on the amount of total revenues. The value of the dollar in 1967 is used as a base to measure real growth.

2. Keeping the response to question 1 in mind, how would you compare sales in 1975 with 1978?

   The amount collected in 1978 (using 1978 dollars) was greater than the amount collected in 1975 (using 1975 dollars). But sales in real dollars actually declined. Inflation just made it seem as if more money was made in manufacturing in 1978 than in 1975.

"Twenty-Year Change in Employment"

1. In 1980 what type of job employed the most people? The least? In 1970? In 1960?

   1980--retail trade; pineapple
   1970--retail trade; pineapple
   1960--retail trade; hotels

2. Which job type has shown the greatest increase in number of people employed over the 20-year period? The second greatest increase? The third?

   retail trade, other services, state government

3. Which industries have shown a decrease in number of people employed?

   sugar and pineapple

4. Can the total number of people employed increase indefinitely? What do you think will happen in the future?

"The Importance of the Harbor"

Think about your day, from the moment you awake to the time you go to sleep. Visualize the things around you. Of the items which come to mind, which ones do you think were brought to Hawai'i by sea? Make a list of them.

Students may come up with a list similar to the following. This list is not meant to be exhaustive.

bed frame
mattress
sheets
desk
clothes/shoes
lamp
toothpaste
toothbrush
basin
toilet seat
soap
watch
canned foods
dairy products
fruits and juices
coffee
plastic cups
vitamins
refrigerator
stove
sink
dishwasher
pots and pans
dishes
faucet
towels
bookshelves
buses
trucks
gas stations
school lunch
soda machine
snacks/chips
Big Mac
art work
electric fan
lunchbox
dining room table
sofa
automobile
gasoline
traffic lights
file cabinet
school desks
chairs
blackboards
posters and pictures
library books
typewriters
telephones
T.V./radio
glue
air conditioner
florescent lights

"Trade with U.S. Mainland and Foreign Countries"

1. Look at the graph showing total imports to Hawai'i. Two thousand million dollars is equivalent to how much money?

   2 billion dollars

2. Graphs can be deceiving. Looking at the two graphs may give you the idea that Hawai'i's imports is just a little more than its exports. A closer look, however, shows that there is a tremendous difference. What was that difference in 1978? See table, "Trade in Hawai'i," for specific numbers.

   In 1978 we imported $3,370,000,000 worth of goods and exported $632,500,000 worth of goods. Thus, we spent $2,737,500,000--or almost 3 billion dollars--more in imports than we were able to export.

Activity

Using the figures in the two tables mentioned above, draw two graphs, one showing total imports and the other showing total exports. Use the same scale for both graphs. You may need to tape together two or more sheets of graph paper for one of the graphs. How are your graphs different from the ones shown here?

Like the graphs students were asked to make showing foreign exports and imports, these student-drawn graphs will be excellent visual representations of the dramatic difference between our imports and our exports, and show Hawai'i's heavy dependence on the outside world.

"Hawai'i's Trade with Foreign Countries"

1. Look at the graph showing total foreign imports. Two thousand million dollars is equivalent to how much money?

   2 billion dollars

2. Graphs can be deceiving. A glance at the two graphs might give you the impression that the amount Hawai'i exports to foreign countries is just a little less than what it imports. A closer look, however, shows that there is a tremendous difference between our imports and our exports. What was that difference in 1981? See table, "Trade in Hawai'i," for exact numbers.

   In 1981 we spent $1,744,500,000--or almost 2 billion dollars--more in imports from foreign countries than we were able to export to them.

Activity

Using the foreign trade figures in the table, "Trade in Hawai'i," draw two graphs, one showing foreign imports and the other showing foreign exports. Use the same scale for the two graphs. You may need to tape together two sheets of graph paper for one of the graphs. How are your graphs different from the ones shown here?

The graph showing imports will take at least two sheets of graph paper taped together. As a result of drawing the two graphs, students will have before them a good visual representation of the dramatic difference between our imports and our exports. The increasing import/export ratio shows Hawai'i's rising dependence on foreign goods and services, such as oil and automobiles.

"Energy in Hawai'i"

1. How much of the fuel we import is used for electricity? What are some of the uses of fuel not used for electricity?

   25 percent of the imported fuel is used for electricity. Gasoline is probably the biggest use of fuel imports. We also have gas ranges and water heaters.

2. Most of our fuel imports come from what country?

   Indonesia

3. How is crude oil from Alaska different from that of Southeast Asian countries?

   Alaskan crude has a higher sulfur content; local refiners can refine limited amounts of this lower quality oil.

4. What are some alternate energy resources? What do you know about each of them?

"Manganese Nodule Potential"

1. What do you think of the U.S.'s refusal to sign the Law of the Sea Treaty? Do you think a more technologically advanced country should share its knowledge with less developed countries? What are the advantages and disadvantages for the U.S.?

2. What are the benefits of mining for manganese nodules? What are the risks? Which carries more weight with you, the benefits or the risks?

   Benefits: Manganese nodules contain nickel, copper, cobalt, and manganese useful in steel making, electrical equipment, and specialized machinery. Seabed mining will make us less dependent on countries not friendly to us.

   Risks: A processing plant would produce millions of tons of solid waste which must be discarded in some way. How toxic the wastes are is a question that has not yet been answered.

"The 200-Mile Fisheries Conservation Zone"

1. How many islands can you count in the Hawaiian chain?

   There are 41 islands and reefs shown on the map, 48 if you count the small features shown just south of the main islands.
   There are eight major islands.

2. Why is the Fisheries Conservation Zone (FCZ) shaped like a cloud?

   The FCZ is shaped like a cloud because each line is drawn an equal distance from the shoreline, and the shoreline is not straight.

3. Why are none of the circles closed?

   The "circles" do not close because the 200 mile distances from island shorelines overlap.

4. What is the closest you could get to a land mass and still be outside the 200 mile FCZ?

   This is a trick question. Obviously the closest you can get is 200 miles.

5. How does the FCZ reinforce the archipelago concept?

   The FCZ reenforces the archipelago concept because the 200-mile zone is one solid area. The idea of an archipelago is that the islands are all part of a continuous ocean mountain chain. The ocean which separates them only obscures their relationship. The 200-mile zone, which includes the ocean waters, treats the islands and the ocean waters between them as one legal entity.

6. Why would it be difficult to patrol the FCZ area?

   The FCZ is so large that only a huge fleet of patrol boats or a large number of aircraft could effectively patrol all of its waters.

7. Using the scale in miles on the map, calculate approximately how many square miles are in Hawai'i's FCZ.

   Officially there are approximately 600,000 squares miles of ocean in our FCZ.

8. What implications do you think the FCZ has for

   a. **local fishermen:** *provides more exclusive use of fishery resources.*

   b. **foreign fishermen:** *limits the amount of fish caught by foreign fishermen.*

c. national defense: *provides a legal reason for enforcing national security regulations regarding the passage of foreign military vessels in Hawaiian waters.*

d. protection of whales: *provides a legal reason for enforcing conservation measures throughout the FCZ to protect whales. Theoretically this could provide more protection.*

Databook and Atlas as It Relates to the
Five Units of
The Shaping of Modern Hawaiian History

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